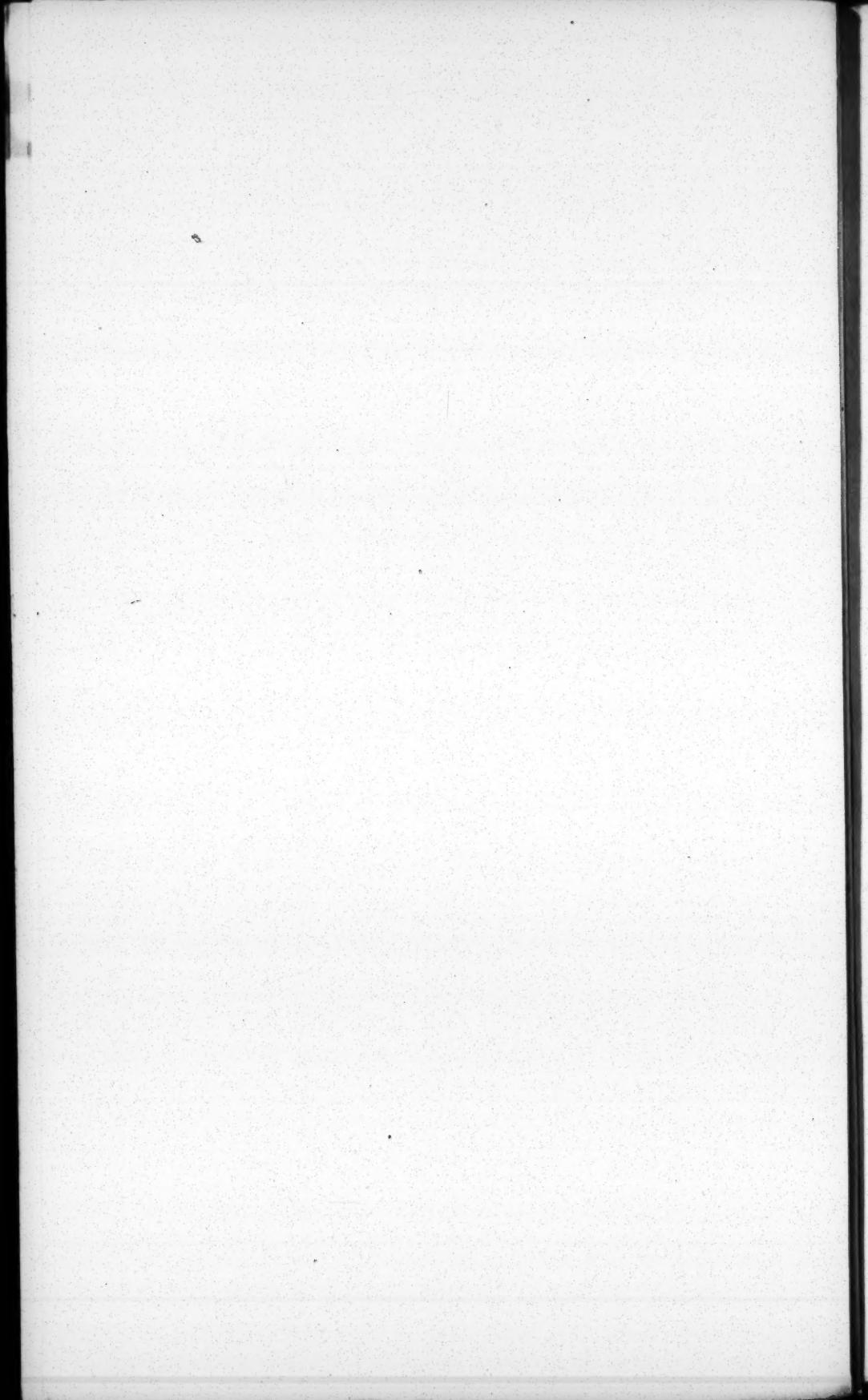


A N
A C C O U N T
O F T H E
Principles of Grammar,
As applied to the
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.



A N
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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

In TWO TREATISES.

The FIRST, containing Rules for every Part
of its Construction;

With a PRAXIS both of True and False *English*,
Shewing how the Rules are to be applied in resolving the
True, and in rectifying the False.

The SECOND, shewing the Nature of the seve-
ral Parts of Speech, and the Reasons of every
Part of Construction.



By WILLIAM WARD, M.A.

*Master of the Grammar-School at Beverley, in the County of
YORK.*

*Hæc aut omnino non discimus; aut prius desistimus, quam in-
telligamus cur discenda sint.* VARRO.

Y O R K:

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E R R A T A:

Page 6, Line 9, for *particulur*, read *particular*:

- 23, 17, for *O the Church*, read *O the Churches*.
42, 6, after *to act*, insert *acting*.
44, 14, for *Sing.* read *Plur.*
134, 26, for *BTWEEN*, read *BETWEEN*.
155, 14, for *opportunity*, read *opportunity*.
-

In the second Treatise, at Page 226, Line 26, for *objective Words*, read *objective Verbs*.



P R E F A C E.

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THE following Grammar is not merely the Product of Reflection in the Study ; but much Trial, and Practice, and Experience have likewise contributed to bring it to its present Form. As I have now been at the Head of a public School above thirty Years, I have, from daily Experience, had too much Occasion to observe, that the Understanding of Children is not improved so much as might be wished by the usual Methods of teaching Grammar ; and that these Methods are therefore irksome, both to the Master and Scholar : Yet I have found by repeated Experience (and I suppose every one who has been long a School-Master has found the same) that the Knowledge of Grammar is of absolute Necessity towards the perfect understanding of any Language : So that however irksome the Labour of teaching or learning Grammar may be, it must be submitted to, both by the Master and Scholar. The great Point therefore is, to make the Labour as easy as the Nature of the Thing admits of.

The Subject is in itself somewhat abstracted, and of Consequence, in whatsoever Manner it is taught, can afford little or no Entertainment to the Imagination : But it may be made the Means of setting the discursive Powers to Work ; and the Exertion of these Powers is agreeable, even to Children, if the Points on which the Powers are to be exerted be not too remote from their Comprehension. Now

these Points in the Latin Language are too remote from the Comprehension of English Children ; for there is probably no Language so different from the English as the Latin is ; yet the Rudiments of Grammar have been usually taught in our Schools, solely or principally with regard to the Latin. Thus our Children have several Difficulties to encounter at once, seeing they are equally ignorant of the Art of Grammar, and of the Language to which they are to apply it ; but they have some Knowledge of their Native Language, acquired by meer Custom : And although this Knowledge is by no Means distinct, yet it is a proper Subject on which to employ our Pains and Skill, in order to render it, by Degrees, more and more distinct and perfect.

This must be done by first putting the Learner upon classing his Conceptions, and then by shewing him how each Class is applied in the Construction of Language.

The classing of his Conceptions will be accomplished, so far as this Subject at first requires, by shewing a Learner how to distinguish the several Parts of Speech one from another. This may be easily shewn to any Child who can read his own Language, by putting him upon resolving it into its constituent Parts, and telling him the grammatical Name of the Part of Speech to which every Sort of Word that he meets with belongs. As to the Application of the Conceptions or Operations annexed to each Sort of Words, he has already some Notion of it, acquired by Use from his Infancy ; but this Notion is indistinct, and therefore must be rendered more clear and determinate. To effect this, we must begin, by shewing the Child that several of the Parts of Speech admit of different Kinds of Application, and that on different Accounts, and for different Purposes. This introduces a Necessity of considering the different grammatical Forms

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Forms under which the same Substantive, Pronoun, and Verb, appear in Language : Or, in other Words, of shewing the Child the Declension of the Substantive and Pronoun, and the Conjugation of the Verb : Or if you do not choose to have the Declension and Conjugation drawn out in Form, you must of Necessity cause the Learner to distinguish readily the Signs and Prepositions which answer to the Declension of Substantives, and the Signs and Auxiliars which answer to the Conjugation of Verbs. When these are well known, the Form of a Sentence may be considered, and the Concords explained ; all which may be done in a few Months, and then the rest will be easy. Please but to teach a Child that is eight or nine Years old, and of a tolerable Capacity, a few Lessons in this Manner, every Day, in any easy English Book, and you will find that the Child will take more and more Pleasure in performing his Task ; and, in six or eight Months, will be as ready at distinguishing his Words, and giving his Rules, as you would desire : And if you will set him sometimes to copy Portions from any good English Writer, and at other Times to compose short Letters or Tales, and shew him how to refer to the Rules for the rectifying of his Mistakes, when he makes any ; you will find him improve daily, and proceed with Satisfaction to himself and you : At least I have found this to be the Event in numerous Trials during ten Years or more.

But as to the Directions by which such a Process may be best conducted.—It is manifest that some Rules for the Construction of the Language must be used, and those Rules reduced to some Kind of System. But to what Form should the Rules be reduced ? And to what Extent should they be carried ? As to the Form of the Rules ; that is undoubtedly the best which contributes most to the ease of Memory : And I could think of no better Form for this Purpose than Verses in

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Rhime, with a Repetition in Prose of what each Rule contains. I have found by Experience, that Children easily get these Verses by Heart, and are easily taught to apply them pertinently. If any better Method can be taken, I should be glad to be informed of it, and should as gladly put it in Practice. As to the Extent to which the Rules should be carried—It is manifestly so far as to account for every general Mode of Construction in the English Language.

I have at least attempted this in the following Syntax, which consists of thirty-five Rules, containing about a hundred and seventy Verses. Perhaps the Rules may admit of being diminished in Number, or reduced to fewer Verses, or of being made more exact: But I have not been able to discover any Inconvenience arising from their present Form; nor any general Mode of English Construction to which they do not extend. The Rules for the Order in which Words are placed in English Construction, and those for the Application of the Signs of the Cases, are not of absolute Necessity for English Children: But they may be very useful to them, especially if they should ever learn any Language besides their own; because the former of these Rules will give them some Notion of the Purpose which is answered by this Order; and the latter will accustom the Children to reduce their Conceptions to general Classes as the Rules direct, and to consider how each Class is applied in dependent Construction: But Foreigners will find these Rules of the greatest Advantage; for they are apt to mistake the most in those Parts of our Language to which these Rules relate.

I am of Opinion, that if an English Child is not intended for a learned Profession, no Part of Learning can be more necessary for him than to be made very well acquainted with the Grammar of his Native Tongue: And if he be intended for such a Profession, that still it is the best to begin with English

English Grammar. *The Transition to the Grammar of the Latin or Greek, or to that of the French, or any Modern Language, will by Means of this become much easier; and the Turns of Construction in his own Language will be more readily adapted to those of any other, which he may have Occasion to speak or write: For the Child will have got some Notion of the Intent and Use of Rules in a Language which he understands, and will have begun to apply them to this Language by the same Kinds of discursive Operation, which are exerted in applying Rules to any other Language.*

If an English Grammar were to be made for the sole Purposes of those who propose to learn, and to use no Language but the English only, it might be put into a different Form from that of the Grammars of the learned Languages: And if you take it for granted that every Learner is previously acquainted with the Latin Grammar, much of the English Grammar may be omitted. Dr. Wallis wrote his short Account of English Grammar for those who were in the latter Situation; and several small Pieces have been since written, seemingly, for those who are in the former. Yet as no Man knows but he may have Occasion to learn some other Language, why should he not be taught the English Rudiments in such a Manner as may be of Service towards his learning any other Language? Why therefore may not the Terms of Case, Declension, &c. be retained in English, as they are, by established Custom, in the Grammars of other Modern Languages? The Effect of the Declension and Cases of Nouns, and of the Conjugation of Verbs, is and must be in every Language: Why then may not those grammatic Forms of Nouns and Verbs, which produce the same Effects in different Languages, be called by the same grammatic Names? And why may not Examples of Nouns and Verbs, varied according to the established English

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English Forms, be inserted in an English Grammar, as Patterns by which to vary other Nouns and Verbs? Does not this Proceeding accustom Children to reduce their Conceptions into general Classes? And is not such Reduction the Foundation of all general Reasoning? Why therefore should such remarkable Instances of this Reduction, as the Declensions and Conjugation afford, be omitted in an English Grammar that is designed for the Use of Children and meer Learners? If it be said that the Grammar is made shorter by omitting them: I answer, that it is not thereby made more easy in any Instance, but more difficult in many; and if you will permit me to suppose the Grammar of other Languages known, and to make an English Grammar as difficult as I please, I can reduce it to a very small Compass. Dr. Wallis, as I think, was the first who proposed the concise Method with regard to the English Language: But he writes in Latin, for the Use of Foreigners who are acquainted with the Grammar of that Language: Yet he has omitted, or at least touched very slightly, many Parts of his Subject, which yet are of chief Difficulty to Foreigners: As for Instance, the Formation of the irregular Verbs; Rules for the Order of Position in the English Construction; and indeed almost the whole Syntax of the Language. In this he has been too closely followed by succeeding Writers (for an Authority that exempts Men from taking Pains on difficult Subjects will easily meet with Approbation): But all that he says to shew that we have neither Cases in our Nouns, nor Tenses in our Verbs, is only disputing about the Names, Cases, and Tenses: For we have grammatic Forms of the same Effect with those which are called Cases and Tenses in Latin and Greek; and if you will not allow the English Forms to be called by these Names, you may give them others; and must do it if you would reduce the English Construction to Rule. Several Pieces on English Grammar have been published

published since the Time of Dr. Wallis; and very lately we have been favoured with one by the learned Dr. Louth, now Lord Bishop of Oxford. This Piece is excellent on account of the Notes, in which are shewn the grammatical Inaccuracies that have escaped the Pens of our most distinguished Writers. This Way of Instruction, by shewing what is wrong in English, in order to teach us to avoid it, is certainly very proper, where no Set of Rules are given that shew what is right in every Part of English Construction: But when such Rules are laid down, the Learner should be taught to refer to them continually. And if your Scholars are Children or Foreigners, you need not doubt but in their daily Exercises they will offend against almost every Rule: So that you will, from their own Mistakes, have sufficient Opportunity of shewing them what is wrong, and how to correct it by the Rules. But if your Scholars are Natives of England, and grown up to Years of Consideration, false English pointed out to them may be of the greatest Use: For they are apt to follow Custom and Example, even where it is faulty, till they are apprized of their Mistake: And therefore by shewing where Custom is erroneous, his Lordship has well deserved the Thanks of every one who values the English Language and Literature.

If you follow the Latin or Greek Grammar and Idiom too closely, (especially the Latin) when you are writing English, your Stile will be what is called stiff. i. e. your Words will stand in such an Order, that it will not be very easy to pronounce them, or to comprehend their Meaning. Now as the Generality of Scholars have taken their Conceptions of Stile from the Latin, they are too apt to frame their English Stile according to these Conceptions. These Persons are supposed to understand Grammar, and to regulate their Expressions by the Rules of it; and hence a Notion

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has been entertained, that a Regard to Rules is apt to make a Writer's Stile harsh, and stiff, and scholastic: But if any one pleases to examine Mr. Addison's Stile, he will find that it easily, and of itself, falls in with the English Rules, which the Stile of several of the other Writers in the Spectator does not. We, at this School, have daily Occasion to observe this in our Teaching; for we make much Use of the Spectator as an English Classic. Now I think it is agreed on all Hands, that no Writer's Stile is less stiff than Mr. Addison's, so that the above mentioned Notion is certainly groundless. In short, a very blameable Neglect of grammatical Propriety has prevailed amongst the English Writers, and at length we seem to be growing generally sensible of it; as likewise of the Use which may be made of a Knowledge of the English Grammar, towards assisting Children to comprehend the general Import and Advantage of Rules concerning Language. If this Treatise shall appear in any Degree serviceable to those who are engaged in an Office so very useful, and so very laborious, and yet, till of late, so little regarded, I shall think all the Time and Labour, and Thought, amply repaid, which, for so many Years together, have been spent on the Treatise.

Our Way of using the Book is this: If a Child has not learned any Thing of the Latin Declensions and Conjugations, we make him get the English Forms by Heart: If otherwise, we make him read the English Forms several Times over, till he remembers them in a good Measure: Then we hear him read the Descriptions of the several Parts of Speech; and after he has done so, and has some Notion of the Meaning of each, we oblige him for some Weeks to read three or four Sentences twice or thrice a Day, in any easy English Book, and to tell the Part of Speech to which each Word belongs. When the Child is pretty ready at distinguishing the Parts of Speech, we make him get by Heart the Rules of Concord in Verse, and teach him how to apply them,

by

by resolving the Sentences of some English Book. When this is learnt, we make him write out several of the other Rules, and get them by Heart, and shew him how to apply them likewise, by parsing, or resolving what he reads by these Rules: And thus, by Degrees, Children become Masters of all the material Parts of the Book without much Difficulty. As for Foreigners who are grown up to Manhood, I have usually obliged them to copy the greatest Part of the Book, and have found it of the greatest Service to them: But, as it is now printed in a small Size, the Labour of copying may be spared, and the Book read over several Times; and, if it be carefully explained and exemplified by the Teacher, the Effect will probably be as great as that which has arose from copying it over.

It were to be wished that the Spelling of the English could be made more regular and easy: But, as it is now established by general Use, it does not seem adviseable to attempt any Alterations in it: Therefore those little Books, called Spelling Dictionaries, may be very proper for Learners, till they are become well acquainted with the Spelling of the Nouns and Verbs in their Capital Forms. The Rules of Grammar shew the Modes of Spelling, by which the Plural of Substantives is formed from the Singular; the Comparative and Superlative of Adjectives, from the Adjectives themselves; and the Persons of the Verbs, from the first of each Tense; and likewise by which the Roots of the same Verb are formed one from another: And Constancy of copying and composing will supply the rest.

If those who teach Writing and Arithmetic would bear their Scholars say a Lesson or two in English every Day, according to some Method like this which is above described, and oblige them to write an English Letter every Night, by Way of Exercise, it would be of very great Service to them when they come to transact real Business by Letters and other Compositions in Writing. And if any one has a Mind to see the comparative

Effects of this Manner of Teaching, let him put one Child to a Grammar School, and have another taught by this Method, and at the End of a Year or two, let him compare the Children's Proficiency in Grammar. A Girl may be taught by this Method, and a Boy sent to the Grammar School, and if so, you will find that she will write English much more correctly, and apply the Rules more readily, than the Boy will then do.

As to the Account of the Principles of Grammar, it is not intended for the Use of meer Learners; yet it may be of great Service to every one who would have clear Conceptions of the Reasons of Construction. Both it and the practical Treatise are derived from a larger Work on Grammar, which I published a few Years ago, and which has given Occasion to this which I now lay before the Reader. The former Treatise was not adapted to the Use of Schools; but was designed for the Consideration of Men of Science, and chiefly of those who have been much conversant in the Theory of Grammar: For as several of the Principles which are investigated and applied in that Work, are considerably different from those which have hitherto been admitted in Grammar, I was desirous that they should be publickly examined before I attempted to found a Method of publick and general Instruction upon them. My Analysis indeed led me to conclude that my Principles were right: For the Reason of every Part of Construction evidently follows from them; and this (as I think) cannot be truly said of any other Principles of Grammar which have been hitherto published. It is true, that many very useful Observations have been made on the Subject, by the antient Philosophers, Rhetoricians, and Grammarians; the Principal of which may be seen in a very learned Treatise, published in English some Years ago, under the Title of HERMES, by James Harris, Esq; And many amongst the Moderns have likewise made considerable Advances in the Science of Grammar; as, SCALIGER, SANCTIUS, the Writers

Writers of THE Grammaire Raisonnée, and several others. But no Writer that has come to my Knowledge has given such an Account of the Conceptions annexed to Nouns and Verbs as enables us, from the Nature of these Conceptions, to deduce the Reasons of every Part of Construction : Yet till this is done, can it be imagined that the Theory of Language is compleat ? It is clear that NOUN SUBSTANTIVES in the Nominative or Vocative Case, and VERBS in the Infinitive Mood, are the Supports of all connected Language : For no Sort of Word expresses compleat Sense, but such a Substantive or Verb : Nor does any Series of Words express such Sense, unless such a Substantive or Verb be employed in it, as the capital Word on which all the rest depend. I here consider the Pronouns Personal, Relative, and Demonstrative, as Noun Substantives, and I except the Interjection ; for Reasons which will fully appear in the following Treatise. Hence, the first great Question that arises in the Theory of Language is, How does the Mind of Man form the Conceptions that are annexed to Substantives in the Nominative or Vocative Case, and to Verbs in the Infinitive Mood ? The Solution of this Question is usually considered as belonging to Metaphysics ; and much of what Mr. Locke has advanced concerning the Original and Formation of Ideas, has a near Relation to this Subject ; but he had little Occasion, in his Essay, to apply his Thoughts to the particular Purposes of Grammar. When this Question is resolved, another immediately arises, viz. What is the Difference between the Conception that is annexed to a Substantive in the Nominative Case, and that which is annexed to a Verb in the Infinitive Mood ? As for Instance, between the Meaning of a Being, and to be ; Action, and to act ; a Suffering, and to suffer ? Those who are unacquainted with the Theory of Grammar, may perhaps think the Solution of this Question very easy ; or, if it be of any Difficulty, that it is of small Consequence to the Science :

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But if they should ever apply themselves closely to the Subject, they will find that it is not easy, and yet that it is absolutely necessary towards proceeding with Success, in the Theory or Science of Grammar. It is to small Purpose to consider the Infinitive Mood as the Noun of the Verb, as I think Varro and Priscian have done; or, as a Substantive, as the Writers of the Grammaire Raisonnée have done: For the Difficulty still recurs, viz. If it be a Noun, or a Substantive, in what does the Conception annexed to it differ from that which is annexed to a Substantive of another Kind? When the Nature of the Conceptions that are annexed to single Substantives and single Infinitive Verbs, is ascertained, the next Question that arises is, How is the Mind enabled to circumstantiate one Conception that is formed separately in the Mind, by another that is likewise formed separately. Here the Consideration of Substantives, in oblique or dependent Cases, and Adjectives, necessarily arises in Grammar: And perhaps there is nothing of a more subtle abstracted Nature in any Science than this Part of Grammar is. It is easy to see that the Signs of Cases have a Reference to the Relations that exist amongst the Objects which are denoted by Nouns: But these two most difficult Questions arise: How are these Relations reduced to Classes; and what Class is to be denoted by each Sign? And How does the Mind proceed in uniting two or more Conceptions, each of which may be the single or separate Object of its Contemplation, into one complex Conception, without Increase of Number? For it is manifest, that Substantives, in dependent Cases, never increase the Number of that which is denoted by the Expression in which they are concerned: As for Instance, an Habitation of Men denotes the Conception of but one Habitation, although the Objects Men are concerned in the Expression of the Conception. When this Point is determined, the Nature of THE NOUN ADJECTIVE, and of the ADVERB,

ADVERB, is easily ascertained: For each of these Parts of Speech is equivalent to the oblique Case of a Substantive: i. e. to an English Substantive in Dependence on a Preposition: Thus, a Man of Discretion is equivalent to a discreet Man; and he acts discreetly, to he acts with Discretion; and of and with Discretion, are oblique Cases of the Substantive Discretion; but discreet is an Adjective, and discreetly an Adverb.

The Consideration of THE PRONOUNS arises next in Order. And here it is easy to see that a Personal, Relative, or Demonstrative Pronoun may be used as a Substitute for any Name of any Object whatsoever: But what is the Reason that these Pronouns have this Property? Why do they require Antecedents to be used along with them in Discourse? And above all, What is the Difference between the Effect of a Relative Pronoun, and that of a Personal Pronoun? And, Why must a Relative always stand in the Beginning of its Clause? As to the Possessive Pronouns, it is clear that they are Adjectives, derived from the Personal Pronouns; so that when the Nature of the Noun Adjective is known, there is little Difficulty in explaining them. The Interrogative Pronouns are only the Relatives applied in asking Questions: Therefore when the Nature of the Relative Pronoun is known, that of an Interrogative is easily shewn. The Demonstrative Pronouns may be either used as Substantives, or as Adjectives; and the Reason must be shewn why they are capable of being so used. Their Use, as Adjectives, leads us by an easy Transition to perceive the Nature and Use of THE ARTICLE.

THE VERB comes next to be considered: And if (as I have supposed it to be) the exact Difference is already determined between the Conception annexed to any Sort of Noun, either Substantive or Adjective, and that annexed to any Sort of Verb in

in any of its Forms (Participles not excepted) the Way will be opened in a great Measure towards a compleat Discovery of the Reason of the several Uses of the Verb. Here the following Questions arise : Why does the Verb assume so many different grammatic Forms ? Why are some of these Forms used in Construction like Substantives, and others like Adjectives ? Why, in English, does the same Participial Form admit of being used both like a Substantive and like an Adjective ? Why is a Verb necessary in every Sentence, and that Verb not of an Infinitive or Participial, but of a Definitive Form ? And What is the Import of that Form, independent of the rest of the Signification of the Verb ? The Solution of this last Question opens the Way to a clear Account of the Nature of Affirmation or Assertion. It is manifest, that this is the great End of connected Speech : For why does any one put Words together in connected Construction, but to assert or declare what he perceives or thinks on any Occasion that offers ? It is surprising that this main Point of Grammar should never have been explained by former Writers : Yet I have not been able to find any Writer who has attempted to explain it ; but the Writers of the Grammaire Raisonnée ; and they have not fully succeeded.

As THE ADVERB in its general Nature is shewn to be the same with that of a Substantive in Dependence on a Preposition, THE CONJUNCTION is the next Part of Speech that will require our particular Consideration. Here we shall soon perceive that the Conjunctions express Declarations or Assertions, concerning the Words or Sentences themselves, which are connected by their Means : And here this Question arises : What is the Import of the Declaration that is made by each Sort of Conjunction ? And in particular, What is the Import of the Particle THAT, when it is not a Relative, and yet shews a Sentence as depending

ending on other Words ? THE PREPOSITION must be explained in English, before the Import of a Substantive, in an oblique Case, can be shewn : Therefore, if such Import be already shewn, as I have supposed it to be, there will be few Difficulties remain when this Part of Speech comes to be particularly considered. THE INTERJECTION is now the only remaining Part of Speech : And as it is manifest that this Part of Speech is, of itself, a compleat Declaration or Assertion, the Question that now arises is, What is the Reason that single Words are sufficient for the Assertions to which Interjections relate, whilst yet these single Words are not Verbs.

When the above-mentioned Questions are resolved, concerning the several Parts of Speech considered singly, the Construction of Words, in connected Series, comes next to be considered : And here the following Questions arise : Why must connected Words take the Form of a compleat Sentence on almost all Occasions, in order to give new Information to those who hear or read the Words ? Is the whole Process of applying Words, in connected Expression, reducible to one simple Proceeding ; and if it be, what is that Proceeding ?

THE CONCORDS must likewise be here considered, and the Use and Import of them must be shewn ; and then this Question must be answered, Why are they fewer, and more easily observed in English, than in Latin or Greek, or even in French and other modern Languages ?

Thus I have given in Effect, and with its principal Difficulties, the whole Plan of a Speculative or Theoretic Grammar, with regard to the English Language : And my Reason for doing it is, that by some Letters which I have received, and by some Strictures which have been made in Print on my former Work,

I find the Subject has been little considered: Indeed so very little, that what I have said in order to explain the most abstruse Parts of the Subject, has been looked upon as unnecessary, and even little better than trifling with my Readers. But those who have spoke and thought in this Manner, have considered the Work too superficially: For in it I have attempted to resolve all the above-mentioned Questions, and several others equally difficult; but which relate chiefly to the Latin and Greek Languages: And the Resolution of these Questions is no trifling Work: For if they can be answered so as to give Satisfaction to an inquisitive and attentive Reader, the old Reproach will be removed, Nihil est infelicius Definitore Grammatico: i. e. Nothing is less successful than a Grammarian when he defines: Seeing the Resolution of the Questions must lead to clear and accurate Definitions of every Part of Speech.

It was for the Sake of gaining such Definitions that I first engaged in this Work: For my Profession as a School-Master obliged me to explain the Principles of Grammar to my Scholars; and I found that the Grammars commonly made use of in our Schools gave but a very imperfect Account of them. But as these are intended only for the Purposes of meer Practice, I had Recourse to the Minerva of Sanctius, to Vossius, the Grammaire Raisonnée, Buffier's Grammar, and several other very ingenions Performances on the Subject of rational Grammar; but was sorry to find that the Principles made use of in them, were not sufficient to account for many of the Effects which appear in connected Speech. This determined me, many Years ago, to attempt a Discovery of the Reason of every Part of Construction. The Writers above-mentioned had not given me Satisfaction; yet they are of so great Reputation, that the System of one or other of them has been followed with little Alteration by

every

every succeeding Writer on Grammar : Nay the Grammaire Raisonnée, has lately been represented by the Learned Monsieur Fromant, as a Master-Piece of Human Sagacity. Monsieur Restaut has formed a practical Grammar of the French Language on the Principles of the Grammaire Raisonnée and this Piece (as I am told) is considered in France as excellent. On these Accounts I thought it incumbent upon me to proceed with Care and Caution in my Inquiries.

I had been accustomed to the old geometric Analysis, and had observed, in many Instances, its peculiar Use in discovering Mistakes. This Analysis consists in assuming some Definition or Description of what you would investigate, and in pursuing the Consequences which follow from the Assumption. If the Consequences lead to, and terminate in Truth, the Assumption is concluded to be likewise true. If they terminate in Falsehood or Absurdity, the Assumption from which they follow is concluded to be false or absurd. When it is perceived from what Part of the Assumption, Falsehood, or Absurdity follows, that Part must be rectified as exactly as may be, and the Analysis begun anew from the new Assumption, and again pursued through its Consequences. It is clear that, by proceeding continually in this Manner, we may at length discover the most simple Principles, which will account for any Instance of known Practice ; and this not only in Grammar, but in any other Art. I have tried by this Analysis most of the Accounts which have been given by other Writers of the principal Parts of Speech, and of several other capital Points in Grammar ; and have found that where they disagree with those given in this Treatise, Falsehood or Absurdity may be deduced from them.

The exceeding Abstruseness of many Parts of Speculative Grammar creates a Necessity of being somewhat explicit in

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the Investigation of them : But Truths, when once investigated, and secured by clear Proofs, may be communicated by a much shorter Method than that by which they were first separated from Error, or disentangled from Representations, partly right, and partly wrong.

In my larger Treatise I have given the Investigation at large, for the Satisfaction of such Readers as may be very curious or scrupulous : But for the Sake of those who may be less so, I have made use of the shorter Method in the following Treatise : If any Point does not appear to be sufficiently enlarged on in this Piece, the larger Work may be consulted for the Analysis at large. If it should be said that this will require more Time and Pains than the Theory of Grammar is worth ; I answer, that the Theory of Grammar is the Theory of those Abstractions on which, and on their converse Operations, all our Reasoning depends. Mr. Locke observed long ago, “ That the ordinary Words of Language, and our common Use of them, would have given us Light into the Nature of our Ideas, if they had been considered with Attention.” Essay, Book III. Chap. viii. He has likewise observed how very imperfectly the Particles have been treated of by the Grammarians ; and takes Notice, that to render them, as is usual in Dictionaries, by Words of another Tongue, which come nearest to their Signification, is not sufficient to explain them ; because what is meant by them is commonly as hard to be understood in one Tongue as another : For saith he, “ They are all Marks of some Action, or Intimation of the Mind ; and therefore to understand them rightly, the several Views, Postures, Stands, Turns, Limitations, and Exceptions, and several other Thoughts of the Mind, for which we have either none, or very deficient Names, are to be diligently studied.” Essay, Book III. Chap. vii. Mr. Locke
has

has proved the Truth of this Observation, by examining the Import of the Particle But, and some others. The Particles which he has thus examined are Conjunctions, and the Import of them is much more easily explained than that of the Prepositions: For the Prepositions are Notices to perform connective Operations, which are the Converses of those by which separate Conceptions are first formed in the Mind, and annexed to Substantives and Infinitive Verbs; and for these connective Operations we have no Names. The Reason of this is as follows, viz. The Conceptions annexed to Words are so absolutely under our Command, the Operations by which the Conceptions are united, are so easily performed; the Faculty of performing these Operations in our Native Language, is so easily acquired; and the Acquisition of this Faculty, is so much the Result of meer Example and Trial, that the Reasons of the Proceeding are overlooked; and the different Manners in which we exert our discursive Faculties in this Process, are not attended to. Hence Use and Custom are considered as the only Rules by which to judge of what is right or wrong in the Process. But is the Custom which is observed in the Application of any Language the Effect of Chance? Is not such Custom a consistent Plan of communicating the Conceptions and rational discursive Operations of one Man to another? And who will maintain, that this is, or can be, the Effect of meer unmeaning Accident? If then it be not so, it must be the Effect of the REASON OF MAN, adjusting certain Means to a certain End: And it is the Business of Speculative or Rational Grammar to explain the Nature of the Means, and to shew how they are applied to accomplish the End proposed. If this can be done with sufficient Evidence, the most simple of the Elements of Logic will become familiar to those who engage in a Course of Grammar, and Reason will go Hand in Hand with Practice. This is said of those

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those who are somewhat advanced in the Knowledge of Grammar: For Children cannot be thus taught at the first, any more than they can be taught Arithmetic at the first by Demonstration: Yet Arithmetic is a Science capable of being demonstrated; and Grammar is a Science capable of clear and convincing Proofs, if they be cautiously and diligently sought after.

I have used my utmost Endeavours, in my larger Treatise, to accomplish this most difficult Undertaking; and have the Satisfaction to find that I have so far succeeded as to gain the Approbation of several Persons of acknowledged Abilities, in this and every other Part of Learning: For they have done me the great Honour to signify by their Letters to me, or by Declarations to my Friends, their favourable Sentiments of my Work. This has encouraged me to reduce it to its present Form, for the more immediate Purposes of those who would teach the English Language by Rule and Method, and perceive the Reason of every Step which they take: And I heartily wish that those who are engaged in so useful an Undertaking, may find the Work suited to their Purposes, as I hope they will, if they please to consider it with due Care. Not that I pretend, in a Work on so abstruse a Subject, to have kept quite clear from Oversight and Omissions (though I have used my utmost Care to avoid them): But if any one shall discover such, and will do me the Favour to acquaint me with them, I will rectify them most willingly.

A S H O R T
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR
O F T H E
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

Of the General Heads or Divisions of the Subject of GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR, when reduced to Practice, resolves itself into Four General Heads, viz. *Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody*.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of the Pronunciation and Spelling of Syllables and Words.

ETYMOLOGY, of the several Sorts of Words, and of the Grammatic Variations which some of them admit of, by *Declension, Comparison, and Conjugation*.

SYNTAX, of uniting Words into connected Series, expressing the various Conceptions of the Mind of Man.

PROSODY treats of the Composition of Verse with due Regard to Harmony.

Some Knowledge of Orthography must be acquired before the other Parts of Grammar can be learned: And therefore it is proper to consider what is said on this Part as introductory to the rest.



INTRODUCTION.

Concerning ORTHOGRAPHY, or the due Pronunciation and Spelling of Syllables and Words in the English Language.

THE Sounds used in Language are called articulate Sounds.

A SYLLABLE is such an articulate Sound as can be uttered with one Impulse of the Breath.

The Elements of Syllables are Letters. These are Twenty-six in English, according to the following Table, which is called the English Alphabet.

Roman.	Italic.	Old English.	Name.
A	a	ꝑ	a
B	b	ꝑ	be
C	c	ꝑ	see
D	d	ꝑ	dee
E	e	ꝑ	e
F	f	ꝑ	eff
G	g	ꝑ	jee
H	h	ꝑ	atch
I	i	ꝑ	i
J	j	ꝑ	j consonant ja
K	k	ꝑ	ka

L	I	L	l	L	i	d
M	m	M	m	M	m	em
N	n	N	n	N	n	en
O	o	O	o	O	o	o
P	p	P	p	P	p	pee
Q	q	Q	q	Q	q	cue
R	r	R	r	R	r	ar
S	f s	S	f s	S	f s	e/s
T	t	T	t	T	t	tee
U	u	U	u	U	u	u
V	v	V	v	v		v consonant or va
W	w	W	w	W	w	double u
X	x	X	x	X	x	ex
Y	y	Y	y	Y	y	way
Z	z	Z	z	Z	z	zed

To these Letters may be added the Character \textcircled{E} , which is used for *and*.

A LETTER is a Mark of a certain Position of the Organs of Speech, attended with a certain Manner of directing the Breath. This may be called *the Articulation* belonging to each Letter.

Of the Letters in general.

THE general Division of the LETTERS is into VOWELS and CONSONANTS.

A, e, i, o, u, are *Vowels*, as likewise *y* and *w* in some Applications of them. The rest of the Letters are *Consonants*.

The Articulation denoted by a VOWEL is such, that it leaves a free Passage to the Breath through the Lips: Therefore every Vowel may constitute a Syllable by

A z itself;

itself: For the Sound produced by its Articulation is distinct, and agreeable; and may be made as long, or as short, as the Speaker pleases; and this, merely by continuing to emit his Breath a longer or shorter Time, without any Change in the Position of his Organs of Speech.

Several Modifications, besides *Length* and *Shortness*, may be given to the Sound of the same Vowel; and that without the Assistance of the Consonants. For it may be made *slender*, by emitting the Breath with a less Force through a less Aperture of the Mouth; or *broad*, by using more Force and a greater Aperture. Or it may be made *close*, by directing the Breath toward the Roof of the Mouth, and letting some Part of it pass leisurely through the Nose; or it may be made *open*, by passing all or most of the Breath by the Mouth only.

The Articulations of two Vowels may be run into each other without checking the Course of the Breath. And by this Proceeding several of the Sounds are formed which are denoted by *Diphthongs*; such as *ai*, *oi*. But some Diphthongs are used, in English, to denote the *broad Sound*, and others, the *close Sound* of a single Vowel. Thus *aw* denotes the broad Sound of *a*; and *oo* the close Sound of *o*, &c.

The Letters which are not Vowels, direct to such Articulations as do not, of themselves, produce distinct Utterance; but serve to modify the Sounds denoted by Vowels. Therefore these Letters are called CONSONANTS.

B, *d*, *k*, *p*, *t*, are mute Consonants. For the Articulation which each of them denotes prevents the Breath from

from passing either through the Mouth or Nose; and till the Breath passes, no Sound can ensue.

C and *g* are sometimes mute, and sometimes not so. When mute, they are said to be *hard*; as in *can*, *crime*, *give*, *gold*, *grant*. When not mute, (i. e. when a little of the Voice is suffered to pass whilst the Articulations continue which they denote) they are said to be *soft*; as in *cell*, *civil*, *gem*, *giant*, &c.

The rest of the Letters, viz. *F*, *b*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *v*, (*y* and *w*, even when used as Consonants) *x*, and *z*, direct to such Positions of the Organs of Speech as permit the Breath to pass either through the Lips or Nose, or both. But the Sound which ensues, is either so weak, or indistinct, as to be disagreeable by itself: And therefore the Sounds which these Letters denote, are not considered as fully articulated, but as serving to modify the Sounds denoted by the Vowels.

L, *m*, *n*, *r*, are called *Liquids*: They require the Breath to be directed towards the Roof of the Mouth, and then suffered to escape by the Nose, or by the Sides of the Tongue; and this gives their Sounds that continued Flow which is called *Liquid* by the Grammarians.

The Articulation of a Consonant may modify that of a Vowel, either by preceding, or succeeding it. If a Consonant is placed before a Vowel, we discharge the Articulation of the Consonant upon that of the Vowel, and emit the Breath by the latter Articulation. If a Consonant is placed after a Vowel, we continue the Articulation of the Vowel, without checking the Course of the Breath, till the Articulation of the Consonant is compleatly formed. The Sound of every Syllable that

con-

consists of a Vowel and a Consonant is formed in one of the Manners above described. The Articulations of two or more Consonants may unite with a Vowel or Diphthong in forming a Syllable; as in *blush*, *crawl*, *toils*, &c. But when a Syllable is very complex, it is usually difficult to pronounce; and whatsoever is so, is not agreeable to the Ear.

Syllables are the Elements of Words.

Of the Letters in particular: And first of the Vowels.

A.

THIS Vowel has three Sounds in English; *the slender, the open, and the broad.*

Slender; as in *place, nation, various, &c.*

Open; as in *father, languish, valley, &c.*

Broad; as in *all, wall, &c.* The broad *a*, is the *open a* pronounced long.

A is used in forming the Diphthongs *ai, ay, au, aw.*

Ai or *ay* denotes *a* long and slender, as in *vain, play, &c.*

Au and *aw* have the same sound as *a* broad. For *bau* and *baw* are pronounced as *ball* and *ball*.

E.

Single *e* is seldom pronounced long in English, except in some Words taken directly from the Greek or Latin; as *Demon, Philetus, quere, &c.*

E short

E short is the most common Vowel in the Language; as in *error, best, &c.*

E is used at the End of many Words, merely to shew that the Sound of the last Syllable is to be softened. This is usually done by lengthening and opening the Sound of the Vowel which is in the Syllable; as in *babe, recede, strike, provoke, duke.*

E, when thus used, is said to be *silent.*

In some Words, only the Consonant of the last Syllable is opened by the silent *e*, and the preceding Vowel is close and short; as in *hermitage, surface, give, love, &c.*

E at the End of Words, before *n*, and after *l*, or *r*, is a Notice that the Sound of the last Syllable is to be formed within the Mouth towards the Palate, without suffering much of the Breath to depart through the Lips; as in *open, given, fable, buckle, metre, lucre.* When *le* and *re* have this Sound, the *e* is pronounced before the *l* and the *r*, although it is written behind them. Syllables thus sounded are said to be *liquid*, in Terms of Grammar.

E is used in forming the Diphthongs *ea, ei, eu, ew.*

Ea, in many Words, denotes *e* long and open; as in *dream, cream.* But in many Words it has the Effect of *ee*; that is, of *e* long and close; as in *dear, fear.* But in *bread, stead, sweat*, and some other Words, *ea* is sounded as *e* short and close.

Ei has a Sound which is intermediate between the open and close Sounds of *ea* long; as in *perceive, teize.*

Eo is

Eo is found in *People* and sounds as *ee*; and in *Yeman* pronounced *Yemman*.

Eu and *Ew* have the sound of *u* long and soft, but not made liquid by letting the Breath escape by the Nose; as in *eulogy*, *dew*, &c.

Ae sometimes appears as a Diphthong in Greek and Latin Names; as *Aeacus*, *Cæsar*. It sounds as *ee* before a Vowel, and as *ea* before a Consonant.

I.

I has a long open Sound in Monosyllables, if they end in Silent *e*, or in *ind*; as *mine*, *fire*, *smile*, *bind*, *be-bind*, &c. In other Words it is short; as *if*, *bid*, *this*, &c.

I before *r* is often sounded almost as *u* close; as *firſt*, *flirt*, *ſkirt*.

The Diphthong *ie* is sounded as *e* long and close; as in *field*, *believe*. *I* begins no other Diphthong; except that it precedes *eu* in *lieu*, and *ew* in *view*; which are sounded as if written with *u* long and close.

O

O is usually long before single Consonants; as in *odious*, *omen*: and short before two Consonants; as in *loll*, *rock*. But it is long in *toll*, *roll*, and frequently before *r* followed by another Consonant; as in *border*, *ordinance*, *ornament*, &c. *O* precedes all the Vowels in forming Diphthongs.

OA has the sound of *o* long and open, as in *coal*, *boast*.

Oe is only found in some few Greek Words taken immediately into the English, as *œconomy*, *œcumenical*. It sounds as *e* long and open.

Oi de-

Oi denotes the Sounds of *o* and *i* very intimately united; as in *oil, noise*. *Y* follows *o* at the End of Words, instead of *i*; as *boy, destroy*.

Oo directs the Sound of *o* to be formed towards the Palate, whilst the Breath is emitted by a round Aperture of the Mouth. This Aperture enlarges the internal Cavity of the Mouth so as to make it approach to the Articulation denoted by *w*. Therefore *Oo* is the Close Sound which corresponds to the open Sound denoted by *ow*, or *ou*. This close Sound may either be *long*; as in *boot, fool, food*; or *short*; as in *blood, stood, wool*.

Ou, or *ow* denotes the Sound of *o open* united with the following Articulation of *u* or *w*; as in *foul, sound, grow, knowledge*. These Sounds may be made more or less close and deep, by making the Mouth more or less hollow, and directing the Breath more or less toward the Palate. Thus a *Bowl*, meaning an orbicular Body, requires a close Sound: But a *Bowl*, meaning a Vessel, requires a more open Sound.

By varying the Cavity of the Mouth, and directing the Breath more and more inwards, *ou* approaches, in some Words, to *u long and soft*; as *court*; or to *u short and soft*, as *labour, vapour*; or to *u close*; as *cou'd, wou'd*, for *could, would*; or to *u deep and open*; as *rough, tough*; or to *o close and guttural*; as *cough, slough* meaning a Place deep in Mire.

U

U has a long smooth Sound in the last Syllables of Words that end in silent *e*, or in *ution* or *usion*; as *blue, true, rule, to use, to abuse, to refuse, to confute, resolution, confusion, &c.*

But in the Nouns, *use*, *abuse*, *réfuse*, *abstruse*, the *s* is pronounced more through the Lips, so as to give *u* a harder Sound.

U is commonly short before two or more Consonants; as in *stubble*, *rust*, *percussion*; and before single Consonants at the end of Words; as *put*, *thus*, *rub*.

U forms a Diphthong in the Middle of Words, by preceding all the other Vowels; as in *square*, *quest*, *quite*, *anguish*, *to quote*. But when thus applied it has the Effect of *w*; which, and not *u*, is used at the beginning of Words; as *wane*, *west*, *wild*, *worn*.

U is sometimes *quiescent*, or omitted in the Pronunciation, before *a*, *e*, *i*, *y*; as in *guard*, *guest*, *guide*, *buy*.

T

X, when used as a Vowel, supplies the Place of *i* at the end of Words; as in *my*, *t^hix*, **fly*; and before an *i*; as *dying*, *flying*. It is usually retained in derivative Words, if it was the latter Part of a Diphthong in the Primitives. Thus, from *day*, *days*; from *destroy*, *de^{stroyer}*; from *convey*, *conveyancer*, &c. But if *y* is not the latter Part of a Diphthong in the Primitives, it is removed, and *i* substituted for it in Derivatives. Thus, from *Fly*, *Flies*; from *deny*, *denies*, *denial*, &c.

Of the Consonants in particular.

THE mute Consonants, *b*, *d*, *k*, *p*, *t*, require few Observations: For each of them is uniform in its Effect, and that Effect is probably much the same in all Languages.

B is quiescent in some English Words; as *debt*, *subtle*, *limb*, *thumb*, *comb*, &c.

P is quiescent in *Psalm*, *Ptizan*; and between *m* and *t*; as *tempt*, *exempt*.

Ti before Vowels denotes an open Sound like that of *shi*; as in *patience*, *disputations*, *absolution*. But if an *s* goes before *ti*, or the word be derived from one that ends in *y* by a Vowel following *ti*, the *t* is close; as in *christian*, *suggestion*; *mighty*, *mightier*, *mightiest*, &c.

H directs to give the Breath a free current through the Lips. Therefore, if *h* follows a mute Consonant, the Articulation is opened by it: Thus *ph* denotes the Articulation of *p* made open by passing the Breath through the Lips. This is the Articulation denoted by *f*; and therefore *ph* and *f* are equivalent.

The general Nature of the Liquid Sounds denoted by *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*, has been already explained at page 5.

It is not necessary to make any particular Observations on *l*, *m*, and *n*; but it is proper to observe of the Sound of *r*, that it may be made less or more liquid at our Pleasure. When it is less liquid, a considerable Portion of the Breath is forced through the Teeth; and this makes the Sound rough. This Sound of *r* is hard at the end of Words, if the Syllable which it closes be long; as *bar*, *refer*, *cur*. But when *r* goes before a Vowel, the Breath is directed to the Palate with a more gentle flow; as in *range*, *relieve*, *rise*, *rule*. The Sound is thus softened, or liquified, and hence this Letter has been ranked amongst the Liquids.

Re at the end of Words taken directly from the French is founded as *er* weak and liquid; as in *theatre*, *lustre*.

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The Articulations of several of the Letters may be liquified by altering the Direction of the Breath so as to make it tend towards the Roof of the Mouth, and detaining it a little before it passes by the Nose or Mouth, or both. Thus *v* Consonant is the Liquid *f*; *w*, when considered as a Consonant, is the Liquid *ou*; *y*, when considered as a Consonant, is the Liquid *i*, and *z* is the Liquid *s*.

Q directs to a round Aperture of the Lips, which occasions the internal Cavity of the Mouth to be such, that the Breath necessarily passes up to the Palate as in articulating the Liquid *ou*; so that the Sound of *u* or *w* must necessarily follow *q*.

X is equivalent to *ks*.

C, ch, g, j consonant, *s*, and *th*, remain to be considered.

C is mute, or hard, and has the Effect of *k* before *a, o, u*; as in *can, colour, curious*. It has the same Effect before *r*; as *credit, crime, &c.*

C is open, or soft, before *e* and *i*, and has the Effect of *s*; as *cellar, civil, &c.*

Ch Sounds as *tch*; as *charm, cherish, child, chosen, church*. Except *chaise, chandelier*, and some few other Words taken directly from the French.

G is mute, or hard, before *a, o, u*; as *gather, go, gun.*

G is usually open, or soft, before *e*; as *gem, gentle*: except *gear, geld, get, geese, gewgaw*, and derivatives from Words ending in *g*; as from *ring—ringer—ringing*;

ringing; *wrong*—*wronger*—*wronged*; *young*—*younger*—*youngest*: And generally before *er* at the end of Words; as *finger*, *stronger*, *anger*, &c. But *g* is soft in *ginger*, *harbinger*, and some other Words.

G before *i* is close, or hard; as *gift*, *gild*, *giddy*; except *giant*, *gibbet*, *giles* a Man's Name, *gill* a Measure, (for in *gills*, a Part of a Fish, the *g* is hard) *gilly-flower*, *gin*, *giblets*, *gingle*, *gipsev*.

G soft, or open, has the Sound of *dy*.

G is quiescent in *gnash*, *gnaw*, *sign*, *foreign*.

Gh at the beginning of Words, has the Sound of *g* close; as in *ghost*. In the middle and end it is usually quiescent; as, *right*, *eight*, *straightness*, *thoughtful*, &c.

At the end of some Words *gh* denotes an *f* pronounced deep in the Throat; as, *cough*, *enough*, *tough*, *Slough* meaning the cast Skin of any Thing.

J Consonant is equivalent to *dy* or open *g*; as, *James*, *jealous*.

S at the beginning of Words denotes an open hissing Sound; as in *salt*, *sell*, *side*, *sole*, *sudden*; and at the end of the Pronouns *this*, *us*; and of the Adverb *thus*; and of a few Latin Words taken into English; as, *Venus*, *rebus*, *surplus*: For this Sound at the end of Words, merely English, is denoted by *ss*; as, *glass*, *mess*, *amiss*, *loss*, *truss*.

Single *s* has a smooth Sound, when it is the Sign of the Genitive Case, or of the Plural Number of Substantives, or of the third Person singular of Verbs; as from *god*—*god's*; *men*—*men's*; *a King*—*many Kings*; *I call*—*he calls*, &c.

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The Possessive Pronouns have likewise the final *s* soft; as, *bis, hers, ours, yours, theirs.*

S is also soft before *y* at the end of Words; as *rofy, pofy;* and in *bosom, desire, wisdom, prison, présent, présent, damsel, casement,* and some few other Words.

S is usually soft before silent *e*; as, *wise, rose, infuse,* &c. except *verse, herse, worse,* and some few others.

S after a Vowel, and before *ion*, sounds like *z* long and liquid; as, *derision, confusion*; but like *sh* after a Consonant and before *ion*; as, *Conversion, dispersion.*

S is quiescent in *Isle, Island, Demesne, Viscount.*

Tb denotes an Articulation which few Languages have except the English*. The Tip of the Tongue touches the inward Edge of the upper Teeth, while the Breath is pushed so as to pass by the Sides of the Tongue and make them vibrate. If all or most of the Breath passes through the Lips, the Sound of *tb* is rough: If Part of it passes up to the Roof of the Mouth, and thence through the Nose, the Sound is smooth. Thus it is hard in *thank, think, throw, thrust, &c.* But smooth in *that, thus, thou, thee, thy, they, their, them, this, these, those, them, though:* And in all Words between two Vowels, or between *r* and a Vowel; as, *fiber, mother, within, farther, farthing, &c.*

To soften *tb* at the End of Words, the silent *e* is usually subjoined; as from *Bath, to bathe;* from *Breath, to breathe;* from *Cloth, to clothe, &c.*

* The Letters *tb* are placed together in several modern Languages, but are not pronounced as in English.

The following Rules perhaps may be of Use to Foreigners, by directing them in those Instances of the English Pronunciation, in which they usually find the greatest Difficulty.

1. C before *a, o, u*, as *k* express ;
But before *e* or *i* speak *c* as *f*.
2. If in an English Word *c—b* you see,
Before *c—b* articulate a *t*.
3. G before *a, o, u*, is hard in Sound ;
Or at the End of any Word if found ;
And before *i* : except that open *g*
In *giant, gibbet, gilly-flower* must be ;
And *ginger, gingle, gipsy, giblets* claim,
And *gibe, giles, gill*, and likewise *gin* the same.
G before *e* is soft ; except in *gear,*
Geld, geese, get, gewgaw, and when Words appear }
With *g* before the Termination *er.* * }
And if a simple Word in hard *g* ends,
The like on its Derivatives attends.
4. To speak *I* consonant pronounce a *d*
As followed by a *y* or open *g*.
5. On th' Edge of th' upper Teeth the Tongue you
press
To speak *T—b*, and breathe as for an *f*.

Of

* But in *Harbinger, Warfinger, Ginger*, and perhaps in some few other Words ending in *er*, the *g* is open, or soft.

Of Punctuation.

THIS may be considered as introductory to the Knowledge of Language. For it relates to whatsoever is written or printed; and is intended to mark the different Pauses or Rests, as they are observed in a correct Pronunciation of any Series of connected Words.

There are four Marks, or Points, made use of for this Purpose. Their Names and Figures are as follows.

The Period or full Stop,	} thus marked	.
The Colon,		:
The Semicolon,		;
The Comma,		,

The Period or full Stop is placed at the End of a full Sentence †, which is not considered as connected in Construction with the following Sentence.

A Member of a Sentence, which would make a compleat Sentence by itself, requires a Colon.

A Member of a Sentence, which would not amount to a compleat Sentence by itself, takes a Semicolon if it express so considerable a Part of the Sense, as requires an especial Attention to it.

Other imperfect Phrases, which express less considerable Parts of the Sense, yet so that these Parts require some Distinction, are distinguished by a Comma.

† For the Nature of a full Sentence, see what is said of the Definitive Verb; and likewise consult Rule VII. of the following Syntax.

The following Expression may be considered as an Example of the Use of the Points :

No Man can serve two Masters : For either he will hate the one, and love the other ; or else he will hold to the one, and despise the other. New Test.

The exact Distinction between the Colon and Semi-colon seems to be little regarded. Nor is it very material.

Besides the Points above-mentioned, there is the Mark of *Interrogation* (?) used after the Words of a Question : That of *Exclamation* (!) used after many of the Interjections, and other Expressions of Passion : And the *Parenthesis* () which is used to inclose a Sentence, when included in another, without being necessary to compleat the Sense or Construction. As,

Who hath believed our Report ? and to whom is the Arm of the Lord revealed ?

But Job answered and said, Oh that my Grief were throughly weighed, and my Calamity laid in the Ballances together !

Then Jael smote the Nail into his Temples, and fastened him to the Ground : (for he was fast asleep, and weary) so he died. Old Test.

B O O K I.

*Of Etymology, or the several different Sorts
of Words.*

THE Sorts of Words of which Language consists are usually considered in Grammar as Eight. When thus considered they are called THE PARTS OF SPEECH, and distinguished by the following Names:

NOUN,	ADVERB
PRONOUN,	CONJUNCTION,
VERB,	PREPOSITION,
PARTICIPLE,	INTERJECTION.

And to these, in English, we may add THE ARTICLE.

Please to observe that by *an Object* is meant in this Book, not only a Thing that is visible; but likewise whatsoever gives Occasion to any Conception, such that the Mind can attend to that Conception singly.

And that by a *coalescent Circumstance* is meant such unites with an Object, without increasing the Number of the Object.

S E C T. I.

Of the Nouns.

NOUNS are the Names of Objects or coalescent Circumstances, not considered as *beginning*, *continuing*, *ending*, *being renewed*, *destroyed*, and *again repeated*, so as to suit any Occasion.

For the Object or Circumstance denoted by a Noun is not subject to the Numbers of Repetition *once*, *twice*, *three*,

Sorti
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RTS
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TRIELI

brice, &c. Thus you cannot consistently say *a Man once-twice-thrice*; or *Action once-twice-thrice*. Therefore *a Man* and *Action* are Nouns: For they denote Objects not considered as beginning, ending, and again renewed so as to suit any Occasion. Nor can you consistently say *a virtuous Man* or *a virtuous Action*, *once-twice-thrice*, therefore the Word *virtuous* is a Noun, denoting a coalescent Circumstance; and so of any other Instances.

Nouns are of two Sorts, the *Substantive* and the *Adjective*.

NOUN SUBSTANTIVES either denote Objects, as distinguished by fixed or habitual Marks or Characters; or coalescent Circumstances, to be derived from these Objects.

The Objects denoted by *Noun Substantives* may be accounted by the Numbers *one, two, three*: For when thus expressed, the Objects are conceived as so many separate Things distinguishable from each other by fixed or habitual Marks or Characters.

Noun Substantives are of two Sorts, the *Proper*, and the *Common or Appellative*.

NOUN SUBSTANTIVES PROPER are more usually called *Proper Names*; being intended each to express one single individual Object to which the Name is appropriated; as, *John N—, Mary M—, London, Paris, Greece, Italy. The Thames, The Seine, &c.*

COMMON OR APPELLATIVE SUBSTANTIVES are Names, each of which is common to every Object of a whole Class or Species; as *a Man*, is a Name common to every Man; and so of other Instances.

A Name which was proper at first may become appellative, by being applied to several Objects; as the Name *Cæsar* became common to all the Roman Emperors. And so a Surname, though at first applied to one Man, is given to all his Descendants.

Common or Appellative Substantives are of two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular Number denotes but one Object of a Sort; as, *a Book, Virtue*. The Plural denotes more than one Object of a Sort; as, *Books, Virtues*.

All Substantives are subject to DECLENSION. The English Substantives may be reduced to one Regular Declension, with four subordinate Varieties.

The Varieties consist in the different Manners of forming the Plural from the singular Number. The Forms of each Number may be considered as Six, and called *Cases*, in Imitation of the Latin Forms of Substantives, with which they nearly correspond in Meaning: And the established Name of each Case may be retained, viz. *The Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative, the Vocative, and the Ablative*. The Nominative and Vocative are sometimes called *the Right Cases*; and the rest, *the oblique Cases*.

The Regular Declension of English Substantives.

Those Substantives are of this Declension, which form their Plural by subjoining an *s* to the Singular without encrease of Syllables; as Singular, *a King, or the King*; Plural, *Kings, or the Kings*. And so Singular, *Truth*; Plural, *Truths, &c.* Far the greatest Number of Substantives are thus declined.

Singular.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	a King,	the King.
<i>Gen.</i>	{ a King's, or of a King,	{ the King's, or of the King.
<i>Dat.</i>	to a King,	to the King.
<i>Accus.</i>	a King,	the King.
<i>Vocat.</i>	O King,	O the King.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by a King,	by the King.

Plural

<i>Nom.</i>	Kings,	the Kings.
<i>Gen.</i>	of Kings,	of the Kings.
<i>Dat.</i>	to Kings,	to the Kings.
<i>Accus.</i>	Kings,	the Kings,
<i>Vocat.</i>	O Kings,	O the Kings.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by Kings,	by the Kings.

The *First Variety*, in which the Plural is formed from the Singular ending in silent *e*, by adding only an *s*; yet so that the Syllables are one more in the Plural than in the Singular. This only happens in Substantives which end in silent *e*, after *c*, *g*, *s*, *z*; as Singular, *Place*; Plural, *Places*. So *Bridge*, *Bridges*; *Noise*, *Noises*; *Prize*, *Prizes*.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	a Place,	the Place.
<i>Gen.</i>	{ a Place's, of a Place,	{ the Place's. of the Place.
<i>Dat.</i>	to a Place,	to the Place.
<i>Accus.</i>	a Place,	the Place.
<i>Vocat.</i>	O Place,	O the Place.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by a Place,	by the Place.

Plural.

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	Places,	the Places.
<i>Gen.</i>	of Places,	of the Places.
<i>Dat.</i>	to Places,	to the Places.
<i>Accus.</i>	Places,	the Places.
<i>Vocat.</i>	O Places,	O the Places.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by Places,	by the Places.

The Second Variety, in which the Singular ends in *y*, and the Plural is formed by changing *y* into *ies*; as *fly, flies*. This only happens when *y* is not the latter Part of a Diphthong: For Nouns which end in a Diphthong, of which *y* is the latter Vowel, form their Plural after the regular Manner; as *day, days*.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	a Fly,	the Fly.
<i>Gen.</i>	{ a Fly's, of a Fly,	{ the Fly's. of the Fly.
<i>Dat.</i>	to a Fly,	to the Fly.
<i>Accus.</i>	a Fly,	the Fly.
<i>Vocat.</i>	O Fly,	O the Fly.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by a Fly,	by the Fly.

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	Flies,	the Flies.
<i>Gen.</i>	of Flies,	of the Flies.
<i>Dat.</i>	to Flies,	to the Flies.
<i>Accus.</i>	Flies,	the Flies.
<i>Vocat.</i>	O Flies,	O the Flies.
<i>Ablat.</i>	by Flies,	by the Flies.

The third Variety, in which the Plural is formed by adding the Syllable *es* to the end of the Singular. This happens in Substantives ending in *ch, s, sh, x, and z*; for a single

single *s* cannot be pronounced after these Consonants. Thus, Singular, *a Church*; Plural, *Churches*; so a *Surplus*, *Surpluses*; *a Fish*, *Fishes*; *a Fox*, *Foxes*; *a Buzz*, *Buzzes*.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>a Church,</i>	<i>the Church.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	{ <i>a Church's,</i> { <i>of a Church.</i>	{ <i>the Church's.</i> { <i>of the Church.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>to a Church,</i>	<i>to the Church.</i>
<i>Accus.</i>	<i>a Church,</i>	<i>the Church.</i>
<i>Vocat.</i>	<i>O Church,</i>	<i>O the Church.</i>
<i>Ablat.</i>	<i>by a Church,</i>	<i>by the Church.</i>

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Churches,</i>	<i>the Churches.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>of Churches,</i>	<i>of the Churches.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>to Churches,</i>	<i>to the Churches.</i>
<i>Accus.</i>	<i>Churches,</i>	<i>the Churches.</i>
<i>Vocat.</i>	<i>O Churches,</i>	<i>O the Church.</i>
<i>Ablat.</i>	<i>by Churches,</i>	<i>by the Churches.</i>

The Fourth Variety, in which the Plural is formed from a Singular ending in *f*, or *f* with a silent *e* after it, by substituting *ves* instead of *f*, or *fe*; as, Singular, *a loaf*, Plural, *loaves*; Singular, *a wife*, Plural, *wives*.

Singular.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>a Loaf,</i>	<i>the Loaf.</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	{ <i>a Loaf's,</i> { <i>of a Loaf,</i>	{ <i>the Loaf's,</i> { <i>of the Loaf.</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>to a Loaf,</i>	<i>to the Loaf.</i>
<i>Accus.</i>	<i>a Loaf,</i>	<i>the Loaf.</i>
<i>Vocat.</i>	<i>O Loaf,</i>	<i>O the Loaf.</i>
<i>Ablat.</i>	<i>by a Loaf,</i>	<i>by the Loaf.</i>

Plural.

Plural.

<i>Nom.</i> Loaves,	the Loaves.
<i>Gen.</i> of Loaves,	of the Loaves.
<i>Dat.</i> to Loaves,	to the Loaves.
<i>Accus.</i> Loaves,	the Loves.
<i>Vocat.</i> O Loaves,	O the Loaves.
<i>Ablat.</i> by Loaves,	by the Loaves.

The following Substantives are to be excepted ; and
perhaps some few others, which end either in *f*, or *fe*,
and yet make their Plural in the regular Manner, *viz.*
Brief, *Cbief*, *Dwarf*, *Fife*, *Grief*, *Handkerchief*, *Hoof*,
Mischief; *Proof*, *Relief*, *Wharf*, in the Plural, *Briefs*,
Fifes, &c.

Staff makes *Staves* in the Plural, although it ends in
double f.

As Rules to be got by Heart may be useful, especially
to Foreigners, with Regard to the Formation of the Plu-
ral Number of Substantives, I have subjoined such
Rules in Verse.

The English Substantives by settled Use,
Their Plural from the Singular deduce.
If to the Singular an *s* subjoin'd
Without encrease of Syllables you find,
Look on such Plural Form as *Regular* ;
For Multitudes of Nouns will this Formation bear:
But to four different Plural Forms attend,
Which on some Sorts of Singulars depend.

1. *Es* is the Plural of the silent *e*,
Preceded by an *s*, *z*, *c*, or *g*.
2. *Y* final, not in Diphthongs us'd, supplies
Its Plural by the Termination *ies*.

3. *C-b, s, s-b, x and z encrease*
 Their Plural Forms, by each assuming *es.*
4. *F single, or with silent e, if clos'd,*
 Takes Plural Forms by *v-e-s* compos'd ;
 Except *dwarf, wharf, hoof, proof*, with *grief, relief*,
Fife, strife, brief, mischief, handkerchief and *chief.*

There is a small Number of English Substantives, which form their Plurals differently from any of the former : And therefore they may be considered as IRREGULAR. Thus, *man, woman, ox* ; in the Plural, take *men, women, (pronounced wimen) oxen* ; *brother* has both *brothers* and \dagger *brethren* ; *child, children* ; *cow, both cows and \ kine* ; *die, has dice* ; *louse, lice* ; *mouse, mice* ; *goose, has geese* ; *foot, feet* ; *tooth, teeth* ; *penny, pence.*

Deer, sheep, swine, and people (pronounced *peeples*) are the same in both Numbers. *Pound* is used as Plural in expressing both Sums of Money and Quantites of Weight ; as, *ten, twenty pound sterling* ; *forty, fifty pound weight* ; and so *stone* ; as *ten stone weight*. *Horse* is also used as Plural to signify *cavalry*, as a *troop of horse* ; and we sometimes meet with the Expression *so many head of cattle.*

N. B. When this Mark \dagger is annexed to a Word in this Book, it is a Notice that the Word is obsolete, or, at least, only used in the Stile of the Scriptures.

These Nouns in Plural Forms the Rules forsake.
Man, woman, ox, men, women, oxen take.
 \dagger *Brethren, and brothers*, both from *brother* flow ;
 And *cows* and \dagger *kine* are both deriv'd from *cow.*

D

Children

Children from child; foot, feet; goose, geese; die, di-
Penny makes pence; tooth, teeth; louse, lice; mou-
mice;

The same in both the Numbers, sheep, swine, de-
Pound, stone, and horse, sometimes as Plurals m-
appear.

The Substantives which are either of the regular Declension, or of any of the four Varieties, have not double Form of the Genitive Case in the Plural Number. But the irregular Substantives have the Genitive Case by *s* subjoined, in the Plural, as well as in the Singular. Thus, from *men*, *women*, we have *men's women* as well as *of men*, *of women*, &c. Sometimes a Plain Substantive of the regular Form, is consider'd as Genitive, though it has neither *of* before it, nor *s* subjoined to it. As *the reapers' wages*, for *the wages of reapers*. *On eagles' wings*, for *on the wings of eagles*.

In English, as in other Languages, there are several Classes of Substantives which have only the Singular Form; and other Classes which have only the Plural.

Proper Names are Singular.

Likewise the Names of Virtues, Vices, and other Dispositions of the Mind: Such as *goodness, justice, wickedness, injustice, idleness, indolence, &c.*

Of Herbs; as, *sage, rue, parfley, &c.* except *collyflour, cabbages, leeks, onions, artichoaks, nettles*.

Of Spices; as, *cinnamon, ginger, &c.* except *cloves, megs.*

Of Drugs; as, *mercury, opium, the bark, &c.*

Of Liquors; as, *beer, ale, milk, vinegar, &c.*

Of Unctuous Matter; as, *butter, fat, grease, pitch, ar, &c.*

Of Metals; as, *gold, silver, copper, lead, tin, &c.*

Of Grain; as, *wheat, rye, barley; except oats.*

Of abstract Qualities; as, *speed, vigour, strength, &c.*

To these may be added, *Hanger, the vulgar, offspring;*
as likewise *dust, foot, wool, rust.*

The Substantives which have only the Plural Number, are chiefly the Names of Instruments, consisting of two principal Parts corresponding with each other; as *shears, scissars, snuffers, tongs, bellows, &c.*

To these may be added, *annals, alps, ashes, bowels, breeches, goods, entrails, lungs, creases, wages.*

It seems not to be determined concerning means, whether it be Singular or Plural, or of both the Numbers.

THE GENDER of English Substantives answers to the Natural Distinction of Sex. The Name of every Male, and of every Object considered as Male, is of the *Masculine Gender.* That of every Female, and of every Object considered as Female, is of the *Feminine.* That of every Object of no Sex, or in which the Sex is not considered, is of the *Neuter Gender.*

When inanimate Things, such as the Sun, Moon, &c. or abstract Objects, such as the Passions, Virtues, Vices, are represented as Persons; (as they frequently are

are in Poetry, Fables, and other Works of Genius; those are considered as *Masculine* which are invested with a Male Character: Such as, *the Sun, Fortitude, Death, &c.* And those as *Feminine* which are invested with a Female Character: Such as, *the Moon, the Earth, Modesty, &c.*

There is little Occasion in English to consider the Gender of a Substantive, unless when it denotes an Object which is to be express'd by a *Personal or Possessive Pronoun of the third Person Singular.*

The Reason of this will appear in the Account which will be given of the Construction of these Pronouns.

Of the NOUN ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVES denote coalescent Circumstances not considered as beginning, ending, being renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion.

An Adjective contains in it the Signification of a Substantive; as *manly*, for Instance, contains *manliness*; *great, greatness*; *wise, wisdom*; and so of other Instances. But as an Adjective denotes a coalescent Circumstance, the grammatic Form, by which it differs from its corresponding Substantive, gives Notice to look for the Name of some Object or State with which the Adjective must coalesce. This Coalescence is made by adapting what is signified by the Adjective to the Nature of what is signified by the Name on which it depends. Thus the Adjective *good* may signify any Sort of *goodness*; and a different Sort is to be understood in each of the Expressions *a good man, a good house, a good journey*; and this in Consequence of an Act of Judgment exerted at the joining of the same Adjective first to one Name and then

to another. But if no such Name be mentioned, or understood of Course, the Direction of *the grammatic Form of the Adjective* cannot be fulfilled. And hence it comes to pass, that an Adjective does not, of itself, express complete Sense.

The English Adjectives have no grammatic Variations of Case, Gender, or Number, as those of the Greek and Latin have : But they have Variations for the Purposes of Comparison ; and these are called in Grammar, THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

The Adjective itself is said to be of the *Positive Degree* ; as, *great, generous.*

If the Syllable *er* is added to the End, or *more* prefixed, the *Comparative Degree* is formed ; as, *greater, more generous.*

If *est* is added to the End, or *most* prefixed, the *Superlative Degree* is formed ; as, *greatest, most generous.*

If the Positive ends in *silent e*, only *r* and *ſt* are subjoined to form the Comparative and Superlative Degree ; as, *wife, wiser, wisest* ; for the *e* that was silent in the Positive, becomes vocal in the Comparative and Superlative.

If the Positive ends in *y*, not the latter Part of a Diphthong, the Comparative is formed by *ier*, and the Superlative by *iest* ; as, *worthy, worthier, worthiest, &c.*

Less, and least, are used in Comparison by Deminution ; as *generous, less generous, least generous, &c.*

The Manners above described of forming the Degrees
of

of Comparison generally obtain, and therefore are considered as *Regular*. But the following Adjectives depart from them, and therefore are of *Irregular Forms of Comparison*.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Many	more	most
Little	less	least
Late	latter	{ latest last
Near	nearer	{ nearest next
Nether, i. e. lower		nethermost
	outer	{ uttermost utmost
	under	undermost
	upper	uppermost
	former	foremost

The following Lines, concerning the Comparison of Adjectives, may perhaps be helpful to the Memory.

Of Number, Gender, Case, the English give No Variation to the Adjective.

Yet *er* and *est* as Terminations join,
Or *more* and *most* prefix, when they define
The Forms by which the Proceeds they make known
Of regularly form'd Comparison.

The following Adjectives refuse to bear
The Forms which are accounted regular.
Bad, *worse*, and *worst* requires; *good*, *better*, *best*;
Late, *latter*, *latest*, *last*; *little*, *less*, *least*.

From *much* or *many*, *more* and *most* appear
 Deriv'd, and *nearer*, *nearest*, *next*, from *near*.
Out, *former*, *neither*, *upper*, *under* give
Most in their Forms of the Superlative.

Many Adjectives do not admit of Comparison by *er* and *est*: But by the established Custom of the Language take only the Form by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, pre-fixed. And many Adjectives both admit of the Form by *er* and *est*, and of that by *more* and *most*.

Thus Words of one Syllable are usually compared by *er* and *est*, but sometimes also by the other Form; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; or *more wise*, *most wise*; *less wise*, *least wise*, &c.

Words of more than two Syllables are seldom compared otherwise than by *more* and *most*; *less* and *least*; as, *Contemptible*, *more contemptible*, *most contemptible*, &c.

Words of two Syllables are some of them compared by *er* and *est*, and some by *more*, *most*, &c. The following Sorts are most of them compared in the latter Manner.

Those which end in *ain* or *al*; as, *certain*, *more certain*, *most certain*; *mortal*, *more mortal*, *most mortal*.

In *ed*, *ent*, *id*, *ive*, *ing*, *ous*, *ful*, *less*, *some*, and *in*, *dy*, *fy*, *ky*, *ny*, *py*, and *ry*.

Thus *faded*, *ardent*, *splendid*, *active*, *charming*, *capacious*, *careful*, *artless*, *gamesome*, *cloudy*, *puffy*, *rocky*, *bulky*, *skinny*, *roapy*, *hoary*, form Comparison by *more faded*, *most faded*; *more ardent*, *most ardent*; or *less faded*, *least faded*; and so of the rest.

S E C T. II.

Of the PRONOUN.

PRONOUNS are of five Sorts, *the Personal, the Possessive, the Relative, the Interrogative, and the Demonstrative.*

THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS are Noun Substantives denoting Objects as distinguished by their Situation in Discourse.

Whosoever speaks and names himself may do it by the Pronoun I. Whosoever speaks, and considers others as united with him, so as to be distinguished by his speaking, becomes together with them a Plural Object; and this Object he may name We. These are Pronouns of the first Person.

THOU is the Name of *any single Object spoken to in very solemn or very familiar Stile; + ye or you of any Plural Object spoken to.* But *ye* is now only used in solemn Stile, like that of the Scriptures; and *you* is applied by Way of Civility, as a Name even of *a single Man or Woman spoken to, as well as of more than one.* These are Pronouns of the second Person.

Any single Male, neither speaking nor spoken to, may be called He; any single Female, in the like Situation, She; and any single Object of no Sex, or in which the Sex is not considered, if it neither is speaking nor spoken to, may be called It. Any Plural Object, in the like Situation, may be called THEY. These are Pronouns of the third Person.

All the Personal Pronouns, being Substantives, are declined as such; but all of them except *it* have an Accusative Form different from the Nominative; and the ob-

lique

que Cases are formed by prefixing their Signs to the Accusative Form ; and not to the Nominative, as in other Substantives.

I and its Cases are Pronouns of the first Person. Its Declension is as follows :

Singular	Plural
Nom. I	Nom. we
Gen. of me	Gen. of us
Dat. to me	Dat. to us
Accus. me	Accus. us
Vocat. O me	Vocat.
Ablat. by me	Ablat. by us.

Thou and its Cases are Pronouns of the second Person. Its Declension is as follows :

Singular	Plural
Nom. thou	Nom. þ ye or you
Gen. of thee	Gen. of you
Dat. to thee	Dat. to you
Accus. thee	Accus. you
Vocat. O thou	Vocat. O þ ye or O you
Ablat. by thee	Ablat. by you.

He, she, and it, with their Cases, are Pronouns of the third Person Singular ; and *they*, with its Cases, forms the Plural of all the three, as in the following Declension.

Singular	Plural
Nom. he	Nom. they
Gen. of him	Gen. of them
Dat. to him	Dat. to them
Accus. him	Accus. them
Vocat.	Vocat.
Ablat. by him	Ablat. by them.

Singular

Nom. she
Gen. of her
Dat. to her
Accus. her
Vocat..
Ablat. by her

Plural

Nom. they
Gen. of them
Dat. to them
Accus. them
Vocat..
Ablat. by them

Singular

Nom. it
Gen. of it
Dat. to it
Accus. it
Vocat..
Ablat. by it

I have placed the Vocative Case in the Declension of the first Person, although, strictly speaking, O me is a Kind of Interjection.

I have likewise placed *thou*, *ye*, and *you* as Nominative Cases of the second Person; because they are commonly considered as such: But, strictly speaking, they are of the Vocative Case, and the Pronoun of the second Person has no Nominative.

THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS are Adjectives derived from the Personal Pronouns.

My, our, are of the first Person; *thy, your,* of the second; *his, her, its, their,* of the third.

As they are Adjectives, they are not declined: But they have each of them another Form; except *his* and *its*, viz. *mine, ours; thine, yours; hers, theirs.*

The latter Forms are used, when the Substantive to which one of them relates is not directly mentioned, but is left to be understood, or supplied, from another Part of the Sentence ; as, *this book is not yours, but mine*, i. e. not your Book, but my Book.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS are *who*, *which*, and *that* ; *who* represents Persons ; *which*, Things ; and *that*, either Persons or Things. *What* is a kind of compound Relative, and is equivalent to *this which*, or *that which*.

A Relative denotes an Object as a Personal Pronoun does : But gives Notice at the same Time, that the Clause in which it is used is an Expression of imperfect Sense, till it is united with another Name of the same Object which the Relative represents.

The Form of the Clause in which the Relative is used is that of a compleat Sentence : And this Form makes the Kind of Notice necessary which is given by a Relative Pronoun. See Rule XI. concerning the Construction of the Relative.

The Declension of the Relatives.

Singular and Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>who</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>whose or of whom</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>to whom</i>
<i>Accus.</i>	<i>whom</i>
<i>Vocat.</i>	
<i>Ablat.</i>	<i>by whom</i>

Singular and Plural.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>of which</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>to which</i>
<i>Accus.</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>Vocat.</i>	
<i>Ablat.</i>	<i>by which</i>

And so *what, of what, to what, what, by what*.

When *that* is used as a Relative it never takes the Sign of a Case or other Preposition before it. See Rule XII. of the following Syntax.

None of the English Relatives have a Plural grammatical Form different from the Singular.

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are the Relatives *who*, *what*, and *which*, when used in asking Questions.

Who may represent any one or more Persons, till the Answer ascertains them; as, *Who is here?* Answer, *Your Friend.* *From whom may we expect Benefits?* Answer, *From our Friends.*

What may represent any one or more Things, or any State or Situation denoted by a Verb, till the Answer ascertains them; as, *What is this?* Answer, *A Grammar.* *What are these?* Answer, *Grammars.* *What are you doing?* Answer, *Writing.*

Which is used to denote either one or more Persons or Things of a Company, or Number, till the Answer ascertains them; as, *Which is Mr. N—?* Answer, *The Gentleman in Black.* *Which are the Books of Accounts?* Answer, *Those in the Window.*

It is evident that the particular Person or Object represented by an Interrogative Pronoun is undetermined in some Respect in the Mind of him who asks the Question, and that the Answer determines it.

THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are *this*, *that*, *another*, *the same*.

These Pronouns are used when an Object is ascertained from amongst others of its own Kind or Species, either by some demonstrative Act, as pointing or shewing; or by some Description in Words given, or to be given; as when any one says *this*, and shews an Object near him; or *that*, and shews one farther distant; or says *this*

this which I have said, or which I am going to say; that which I said, or which I was going to say.

Another, shews that an Object, though of the same Kind or Species, is different in itself from some one or more Objects, which yet may be called by the same common Name; as, *this is not the right book, get me another*; i. e. get me a Thing called a Book as well as this; but not the same with this.

The same, shews that the Object spoken of, is not only such as may be called by some common Name, but is distinguished from all others that can be called by the Name; and this by some Mark peculiar to that Object; as, *the same man who told you this, will tell it to many others*.

All these Pronouns are Adjectives, and therefore may be united with Substantives, as Adjectives are; as, *this man, that thing, other men, the same things*: But as the Object which is spoken of when these Pronouns are used, is frequently known by pointing to, or shewing it, or by other Means, the Demonstrative Pronoun often stands alone to denote an Object; and when so, it may be considered as a Substantive, and declined as such.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. this	Nom. these
Gen. of this	Gen. of these
Dat. to this	Dat. to these
Accus. this	Accus. these
Vocat. O this	Vocat. O these
Ablat. by this	Ablat. by these

Singular.

Singular.

Nom. that
Gen. of that
Dat. to that
Accus. that
Vocat. O that
Ablat. by that

Plural.

Nom. those
Gen. of those
Dat. to those
Accus. those
Vocat. O those
Ablat. by those

Singular.

Nom. another
Gen. of another
Dat. to another
Accus. another
Vocat. O another
Ablat. by another

Plural

Nom. others
Gen. of others.
Dat. to others
Accus. others
Vocat. O others
Ablat. by others

And so *the other, of, to, the other, &c. the others, of, to, the others, &c.*

Others is never used with a Name that is mentioned in its own Part of the Sentence; but shews that the Name is to be understood, or supplied from another Part of the Expression; as, *these are not the right books, get me others*; i. e. *get me other books.*

What is observed above of *others*, obtains with Regard to the Negative *none*: For it is never used with a Name that is mentioned in its own Part of the Sentence; but shews that the Name is to be understood; as, *I was told of a difficulty here, but I find none*; i. e. no difficulty.

The same is like the other English Adjectives, having no grammatic Variation of Number; as, *the same man, the same men, &c.*

Of the ARTICLE.

THIS Part of Speech has so near a Relation to the Pronouns, that it may very properly be considered as belonging to the same Class of Words.

The Article is prefixed to Noun Substantives, common or appellative, to give Notice that the Extent of their Signification is to be limited in a less or greater Degree.

There are two Articles in English, *the indefinite* and *the definite*.

A, or *an*, is THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE. *A* is used before a Word that begins with a Consonant ; as, *a man*, *a horse*; *an*, before a Word that begins with a Vowel, or an *h*, sounded softly ; as, *an angel*, *an hour*.

The is THE DEFINITE ARTICLE, and is used both before a Vowel and a Consonant ; as, *the angel*, *the man*.

The indefinite Article gives Notice, that the Object signified by the Name to which it is prefixed, is in some Circumstance that is, or may be, common to other Objects denoted by the Name.

Hence the indefinite Object may represent *every one*, or *any one*, or *some one* of the Sort ; or an Object that is any ways considered as *one amongst others* of the Sort that is denoted by the Name. Thus, in *a grammar* should explain the elements of language ; every Grammar is meant : For every Grammar should explain the Elements of Language. But, in *have you got a grammar ?* any one Grammar is meant : For if you have any one Grammar of any Sort, you may answer yes.

In *I would get a grammar, but I do not know which is the best*; some one Grammar is meant: For I declare my Intention to get one Grammar and no more, but that I do not yet know the particular Grammar which I shall get.

And, in *this is a Grammar, the Meaning is*, this one of the Sort of Books, each of which is called *a grammar*.

The Expressions, *many a man would be glad of such a thing*, and others of like Construction, are elliptical, and signify *each one man of many would be glad, &c.*

As the indefinite Article gives Notice, that but one Object of a Sort is expressed by the Name to which it is prefixed, although the Object is some way equally concerned with other Objects of the Sort. This Article is not usually prefixed to Plural Names: Yet the Adjectives *few*, *great many*, when applied to Plural Substantives, admit of this Article before them; as, *a few books*, *a great many books*. But these are elliptical Expressions, and denote Books in such a Number, that *each one* of the like Numbers, in like Circumstances, may be considered as *few*, or *very many*; and so of other Instances.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE gives Notice, that the Names to which it is prefixed denote Objects in such Circumstances as are not common to other Objects of the same Sorts; as, *the books of Moses*. For here the Books meant are distinguished from other Books, by the Relation which they have to Moses, and which other Books have not.

And

And so any previous Knowledge of the Object, or Intention concerning it, or particular Situation, may ascertain it from others of the same Sort ; as, *the book which you have read to day ; the horse which you propose to ride to-morrow ; the surface of the sea, &c.* and very many other Circumstances occur which ascertain Objects from others of their Sort, and which of Consequence require the definite Article to be prefixed to the Name of the Objects when so ascertained ; as, *the wisest men of the age ; the worst horse of the set, &c.*

The Definite Article is likewise used before Participles, when applied in Construction like Substantives ; as, *in the bearing of injuries* : And before Adjectives and Adverbs of the Comparative and Superlative Degree, when these Degrees are of principal Consideration in what is said ; as, *the higher you stand the farther you may see ; I like him the better for what you have said ; he behaved himself the most cautiously of them all.*

S E C T. III.

Of the VERB.

VERBS denote *states of being*, considered as beginning, continuing, ending, being renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion.

Every State that is denoted by a Verb, may be counted by the Numbers of Repetition, *once, twice, thrice, &c.* as to be *once, twice, thrice, &c.* and so of other Instances : And any Object that is represented in the State, denoted by a Verb, may be considered as in that State, *once, twice, thrice, &c.* as such a thing was once, twice, thrice, so or so : Therefore every verbal State may be

considered, as *beginning, continuing, ending, and then renewed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion.* And this is the essential or distinguishing Property of the Conception that is denoted by a Verb: Thus, *action once, twice, thrice; or an active man once, twice, thrice,* are absurd Expressions: But *to act once, twice, thrice,* are consistent Expressions: Therefore *action* and *active* are Nouns; but *to act* and *acting* are Verbs; and so of other Instances.

The Verb admits of more grammatic Forms than any other Part of Speech; and the whole Set of these Forms, being placed in a Table, is called THE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB; and to vary any Verb according to the Table, is called conjugating the Verb.

The English Verbs are conjugated principally by the Help of the Verbs, *to be*, and *to have*; which are therefore to be considered as *auxiliar Verbs*. These auxiliar Verbs are themselves conjugated, in a great Measure, by the Help of Signs prefixed, such as *shall, will, may, can, &c.* as fully appears in the following Paradigms, or Patterns of their Conjugation.

The Manner of conjugating the Verb *to have.*

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular. I have, thou hast, he + hath or has.
Plural. We have, + ye or you have, they have.

First Preterite.

Singular. I had, thou hadst, he had.

Plural. We had, you had, they had.

Second Preterite.

Singular. I *have* had, thou *haft* had, he + *hath* or
has had.

Plural. We *have* had, you *have* had, they *have* had.

Pluperfect.

Singular. I *had* had, thou *hadst* had, he *had* had.

Plural. We *had* had, you *had* had, they *had* had.

First Future.

Sing. { I *shall* have { thou *shalt* have { he *shall* have
{ I *will* have { thou *wilt* have { he *will* have

Plur. { We *shall* have { you *shall* have { they *shall* have
{ We *will* have { you *will* have { they *will* have

Second Future.

Sing. { I *shall* have had { thou *shalt* have had { he *shall* have had
{ I *will* have had { thou *wilt* have had { he *will* have had

Plur. { We *shall* have had { you *shall* have had { they *shall* have had
{ We *will* have had { you *will* have had { they *will* have had

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Let me have, have thou, let him have.

Plur. Let us have, have +ye, or have you, let them have.

Potential

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing. { I may thou mayst he may
 I can have thou canst have he can have
 I must thou must he must

Plur. { we may you may they may
 we can have you can have they can have
 we must you must they must

First Indefinite.

Sing. { I might thou mightst he might
 I could have thou couldst have he could have
 I should have thou shouldst have he should have
 I would thou wouldst he would

Sing. { we might you might they might
 we could have you could have they could have
 we should have you should have they should have
 we would you would they would

The Preterite.

Sing. { I may thou mayst he may
 I can have had thou canst have had he can have had
 I must thou must he must

Plur. { we may you may they may
 we can have had you can have had they can have had
 we must you must they must

Second Indefinite.

Sing. { I might have had thou mightst have had he might have had
 I could have had thou couldst have had he could have had
 I should have had thou shouldst have had he should have had
 I would have had thou wouldst have had he would have had

Plur.

Plur. { we might you might they might
 we could have had { you could have had { they could have had
 we should you should they should
 we would you would they would

Subjunctive Mood If.

Present Tense.

Sing. I have, thou have, he have.

Plur. We have, you have, they have.

First Preterite as in the Indicative.

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have had, thou have had, he have had.

Plur. We have had, you have had, they have had.

The rest as in the Indicative.

Infinitive Mood.

Present, *To have*. Preterite, *to have had*. Future, *to be about to have*.

Participle Present, *having*. Participle past, *having had*. Participle Future, *being about to have*.

It is to be observed on this Verb, thus conjugated, that so much of the several Forms as is printed in Italicicks remains the same in every Verb of the Active Voice. For the only Difference between the Verb *to have*, and other Verbs of this Voice, is, that one of the Roots of some other Verb is used instead of the Roots, *have*, *had*, and *having*, in the several Tenses in which these Roots appear in Roman Characters.

The Form *+ hath* may be used on any solemn Occasion ; as in a Sermon, or wheresoever it is intended to imitate the Stile of the Scriptures ; but *has* is to be used on other Occasions.

+ Ye may also be used instead of *you*, on any Occasion of the like Nature with the former ; but *you* is to be used on other Occasions.

Any Name of the Singular Number and third Person may be substituted instead of *be* in the third Person Singular of this or any other Verb : And any Name of the Plural Number and third Person may be substituted instead of *they* in the third Person Plural of this or any other Verb.

The Forms *to be about*, *being about*, which are set down in the Future of the Infinitive Mood, and in the Future Participle, are little used at present : For the Participle *going* is now commonly made Use of instead of *about*, as, *to be going to have* : But this is only in the Language Conversation.

It is almost unnecessary to observe, that the whole Present Tense of the Indicative Mood of this Verb constitutes the Signs of the second Preterite ; the first Preterite those of the Pluperfect ; and the first Future, those of the second Future ; and so, in the Potential Mood, the Present Tense becomes the Signs of the Preterite, and the whole first Indefinite, those of the second Indefinite.

The Manner of conjugating the Verb *to be*.

Indicati

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing. I am, thou art, he is.

Plur. We are, ye or you are, they are.

First Preterite.

Sing. I was, thou wast, he was.

Plur. We were, you were, they were.

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have been, thou hast been, he + hath
or has been.

Plur. We have been, you have been, they have
been.

Pluperfect.

Sing. I had been, thou hadst been, he had been.

Plur. We had been, you had been, they had been.

First Future.

Sing. { I shall be { thou shalt be { he shall be
 { I will be { thou wilt be { he will be

Plur. { We shall be { you shall be { they shall be
 { We will be { you will be { they will be

Second Future.

Sing. { I shall have been { thou shalt have been { he shall have been
 { I will have been { thou wilt have been { he will have been

Plur. { We shall have been { you shall have been { they shall have been
 { We will have been { you will have been { they will have been

Imperative

*Imperative Mood.*Sing. *Let me be, be thou, Let him be.*Plur. *Let us be, be + ye or you, Let them be.**Potential Mood.*

Present Tense.

Sing.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I \text{ may} \\ I \text{ can be} \\ I \text{ must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{thou mayst} \\ \text{thou canst be} \\ \text{thou must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{he may} \\ \text{he can be} \\ \text{he must} \end{array} \right.$
Plur.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} We \text{ may} \\ We \text{ can be} \\ We \text{ must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{you may} \\ \text{you can be} \\ \text{you must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{they may} \\ \text{they can be} \\ \text{they must} \end{array} \right.$

First Indefinite.

Sing.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I \text{ might} \\ I \text{ could be} \\ I \text{ should} \\ I \text{ would} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{thou mightst} \\ \text{thou couldst be} \\ \text{thou shouldst} \\ \text{thou wouldst} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{he might} \\ \text{he could be} \\ \text{he should} \\ \text{he would} \end{array} \right.$
Plur.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} We \text{ might} \\ We \text{ could be} \\ We \text{ should} \\ We \text{ would} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{you might} \\ \text{you could be} \\ \text{you should} \\ \text{you would} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{they might} \\ \text{they could be} \\ \text{they should} \\ \text{they would} \end{array} \right.$

The Preterite.

Sing.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} I \text{ may} \\ I \text{ can have been} \\ I \text{ must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{thou mayst} \\ \text{thou canst have been} \\ \text{thou must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{he may} \\ \text{he can have been} \\ \text{he must} \end{array} \right.$
Plur.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} We \text{ may} \\ We \text{ can have been} \\ We \text{ must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{you may} \\ \text{you can have been} \\ \text{you must} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{they may} \\ \text{they can have been} \\ \text{they must} \end{array} \right.$

Second

Second Indefinite.

Sing.	I might I could have been I should I would	thou mightst thou couldst have been thou shouldst thou wouldst	he might he could have been he should he would
Plur.	We might We could have been We should We would	you might you could have been you should you would	they might they could have been they should they would

Subjunctive Mood If.

Present Tense.

Sing. I be, thou be + beest, he be.
 Plur. We be, you be, they be:

First Preterite.

Sing. I were, thou wert, he were.
 Plur. We were, you were, they were.

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have been, thou have been, he have been.
 Plur. We have been, you have been, they have been.

The rest of the Mood the same as in the Indicative.

Infinitive Mood.

Present, to be. Preterite, to have been. Future,
 be about to be.

Participles.

Present, being. Past, *having been*. Future, *being about to be*.

It is proper to observe here, that the prefixed Signs of every Tense in each Mood of the Verb *to be* are exactly the same with those of every Active Verb: And that (except in the two first Tenses of the Indicative Mood, and in the Subjunctive) there is no other Difference between the Verbs *to have* and *to be* but this, viz. That in all the Compound Tenses of the former, where *have* depends upon the Signs, *be* in the latter depends upon the same Signs: And where *had* depends on the Signs of the former, *been* depends on the same Signs of the latter: And where *having* is used in the former, *being* is used in the latter: So that in the Verb *to be* one whole Tense does not become the Signs of another Tense; as happened in the Verb *to have*: But so much only of each Tense of *to have* as is considered as a Sign (and is therefore printed in Italicks) remains with the same Tense of *to be*.

The Whole of the Verb *to be*, when thus conjugated, becomes the Signs of the several Tenses of the passive and middle Voice of the English Verb; and this by a Proceeding which will quickly appear by Examples.

Of the Roots of the English Verb.

Before the other Verbs can be conjugated, their *capital Forms* or *Roots* must be known. These contain all the *Varieties of Termination* which the English Verb admits of; except those of the Persons in some of the Tenses. And these Roots are considered as *Four* in each Verb; although

although in many Verbs two of them are alike, and in some few three are alike. Three of these Roots are found in the first Persons Singular of the three first Tenses of the Indicative Mood in the Active Voice, if these Persons are considered without the Pronoun *I*, and the rest of them also without the Sign *have*. Thus, in the Verb *to call*, the first Persons of the three first Tenses are, *I call, I called, I have called*; therefore three of the Roots of this Verb are, **CALL, CALLED, CALLED**; and if to these we add **CALLING**, we have all the Varieties of Termination which the capital Forms of this Verb admit of. It is manifest that the second and third Roots of this Verb are formed by subjoining *ed* to the first; and that the fourth Root is formed by subjoining *ing* to the first. This Manner of forming the Roots of a Verb may be considered as *regular* in English, because so many Verbs observe it.

If the first Root ends in silent *e*, and the second and third in *ed*, it is sufficient to subjoin a *d* to the first Root; as, *place, placed, placed*: But in forming the fourth Root, the *e* is removed, and *ing* subjoined to the rest of the Word; as, *placing, not placeing*.

If the first Root ends in *y*, not Part of a Diphthong, and the second and third in *ed*, the *y* is changed into *i* in these Roots; as, *signify, signified, not signified*: But the fourth Root retains the *y*; as *signifying*,

The two Manners last mentioned, of forming the Roots of a Verb, may likewise be considered as *regular*; for the small Variation of Spelling which appears in them, according to the general Analogy of the Language.

The final Syllable *ed* is often supplied by a *d* in the Mark of Elision ; as, *call'd* for *called* : And in some Verbs by a *t*, without the Mark of Elision ; as *spelt* for *spelled*. The Verbs which admit of the Contraction *t*, end in *ch*, *ck*, *p*, *x*, *m*, *ll*, *ss* ; as, *fetcht*, *checkt*, *fixt*, *dreamt*, *d-welt*, *past*. In those that end in *ll*, *ss*, one of the Consonants is omitted before *t* ; as, *d-welt*, *dwellt* ; *past*, not *paſt*.

If a Verb end with a single Vowel before a single Consonant, and is either a Monosyllable, or has the Accent on the last Syllable, the last Consonant must be doubled when an additional Syllable is subjoined ; as *to bar*, *barred*, *barring* ; *to fit*, *fitted*, *fitting* ; *to drop*, *dropped*, *dropping* ; *to beset*, *besetting* ; *to regret*, *regretting* ; *regretted* ; *to aver*, *averring*, *averred*.

There are four Thousand and about five Hundred Verbs in the English : And the Roots of all them, except about a Hundred and Fifty simple Verbs with their Compounds, are formed in one of the Manners above mentioned. Therefore all the Verbs, except the Hundred and Fifty last mentioned, with their Compounds may be considered as of one and the same regular Conjugation of the following Form.

The regular Conjugation of the English Verb through all its Voices.

The Active Voice.

To call.

The Roots of the Verb ; call, called, calling.

Indicati

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing. I call, thou callest, he calls, + calleth
 Plur. We call, + ye you call, they call.

First Preterite.

Sing. I called, thou calledst, he called.
 Plur. We called, you called, they called.

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have } called thou hast } called he + hath has } called
 Plur. We have } called you have } called they have }

Pluperfect.

Sing. I had } called thou hadst } called he had } called
 Plur. We had } called you had } called they had }

First Future.

Sing. { I shall } call thou shalt } call he shall } call
 { I will } call thou wilt } call he will }

Plur. { We shall } call you shall } call they shall } call
 { We will } call you will } call they will }

Second Future.

Sing. { I shall have } called thou shalt have } called he shall have } called
 { I will have } called thou wilt have } called he will have }

Plur. { We shall have } called you shall have } called they shall have } called
 { We will have } called you will have } called they will have }

Potential

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Let me call, call thou, let him call.

Plur. Let us call, call † ye you, let them call.

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.	{ I may I can I must	{ call	{ thou mayst thou canst thou must	{ call	{ he may he can he must	{ call
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Plur.	{ We may We can We must	{ call	{ you may you can you must	{ call	{ they may they can they must	{ call
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First Indefinite.

Sing.	{ I might I could I should I would	{ call	{ thou mightst thou couldst thou shouldst thou wouldst	{ call	{ he might he could he should he would	{ call
-------	---	--------	---	--------	---	--------

Plur.	{ We might We could We should We would	{ call	{ you might you could you should you would	{ call	{ they might they could they should they would	{ call
-------	---	--------	---	--------	---	--------

Preterite.

Sing.	{ I may have I can have I must have	{ called	{ thou mayst have thou canst have thou must have	{ called	{ he may have he can have he must have	{ called
-------	---	----------	--	----------	--	----------

Plur.	{ We may have We can have We must have	{ called	{ you may have you can have you must have	{ called	{ they may have they can have they must have	{ called
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Second

Second Indefinite.

Sing.	I might have I could have I should have I would have	called	thou mightst have thou couldst have thou shouldst have thou wouldst have	called	he might have he could have he should have he would have	called
Plur.	We might have We could have We should have We would have	called	you might have you could have you should have you would have	called	they might have they could have they should have they would have	called

Subjunctive Mood If.

Present Tense.

Sing. I call, thou call, he call.
 Plur. We call, you call, they call.

First Preterite as in the Indicative.

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have } called thou have } called he have } called
 Plur. We have } called you have } called they have } called

The rest as in the Indicative

Infinitive Mood.

Present, to call. Preterite, to have called. Future,
 to be about to call.

Participles.

Present, calling. Past, having called. Future, be-
 ing about to call.

The Present and first Preterite of the Indicative are
 also formed in the following Manner.

Present.

Present.

Sing. I *do* call, thou *doſt* call, he + doth does call.
 Plur. We *do* call, you *do* call, they *do* call.

First Preterite,

Sing. I *did* call, thou *diſt* call, he *did* call.
 Plur. We *did* call, you *did* call, they *did* call.

And the second Person of the Imperative Mood
 likewise formed by *do*; as, *do* thou call, *do* you call.

If the Formation of this Voice of the Verb *to call* be
 well considered, it will appear that it no ways differs from
 that of the Verb *to be*, except in the following Particulars, viz. that the two first Tenses of the Indicative
 Mood are composed of Forms derived from the Root
call, *called*, of the Verb itself; and that in the other
 Tenses, where *be* is used in the Verb *to be*, *call* is used
 in the Verb *to call*; but where *been* is used in the Verb
to be, *called* is used in the Verb *to call*; and where *being*
 is used in the Verb *to be*, *calling* is used in the Verb
call. Likewise in all the Compound Tenses of the Active
 Voice of every other Verb, the Signs of the several
 Tenses remain the same; and nothing more is done, but
 placing one of the Roots of some other Verb after the
 Signs, in order to conjugate this other Verb through all
 the Compound Tenses of this Voice.

The two first Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood of the
 Verb *to be*, are different from the two first Tenses of the
 Indicative; which does not happen in other Verbs, ex-
 cept in the Terminations of the second and third Persons
 singular.

*The Passive Voice.**Indicative Mood.**Present Tense.*

Sing. I am } called thou art } called he is } called
 Plur. We are } you are } they are }

First Preterite.

Sing. I was } called thou wast } called he was } called
 Plur. We were } you were } they were }

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have been } called thou hast been } called he + hath has been } called
 Plur. We have been } you have been } they have been }

Pluperfect.

Sing. I had been } called thou hadst been } called he had been } called
 Plur. We had been } you had been } they had been }

First Future.

Sing. { I shall be } called thou shalt be } called he shall be } called
 { I will be } called thou wilt be } called he will be }

Plur. { We shall be } called you shall be } called they shall be } called
 { We will be } called you will be } called they will be }

Second Future.

Sing. { I shall have been } called thou shalt have been } called he shall have been } called
 { I will have been } called thou wilt have been } called he will have been }

Plur. { We shall have been } called you shall have been } called they shall have been } called
 { We will have been } called you will have been } called they will have been }

Imperative Mood.

Sing. Let me be } called be thou } called let him be } called
 Plur. Let us be } be you } called let them be }

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing.	I may be I can be I must be	called	thou mayst be thou canst be thou must be	called	he may be he can be he must be
Plur.	We may be We can be We must be	called	you may be you can be you must be	called	they may be they can be they must be

First Indefinite.

Sing.	I might be I could be I should be I would be	called	thou mightst be thou couldst be thou shouldst be thou wouldst be	called	he might be he could be he should be he would be
Plur.	We might be We could be We should be We would be	called	you might be you could be you should be you would be	called	they might be they could be they should be they would be

The Preterite.

Sing.	I may have been I can have been I must have been	called	thou mayst have been thou canst have been thou must have been	called	he may have been he can have been he must have been
Plur.	We may have been We can have been We must have been	called	you may have been you can have been you must have been	called	they may have been they can have been they must have been

Second Indefinite.

Sing.	I might have been I could have been I should have been I would have been	called	thou mightst have been thou couldst have been thou shouldst have been thou wouldst have been	called	he might have been he could have been he should have been he would have been
Plur.	We might have been We could have been We should have been We would have been	called	you might have been you could have been you should have been you would have been	called	they might have been they could have been they should have been they would have been

Subjunctive

Subjunctive Mood If.

Present Tense.

Sing. I be } thou + beest be } he be } called
 Plur. We be } you be } they be } called

First Preterite.

Sing. I were } thou wert } he were } called
 Plur. We were } you were } they were } called

Second Preterite.

Sing. I have been } thou have been } he have been } called
 Plur. We have been } you have been } they have been } called

The rest of the Tenses as in the Indicative.

Infinitive Mood.

Present, to be called. Preterite, to have been called.
 Future, to be about to be called.

Participles.

Present, being called. Past, having been called.
 Future, being about to be called.

It is manifest from the Paradigm or Form above, that the whole Conjugation of the Verb *to be* becomes the Signs of the several Tenses of the English Passive Verb; and that, in the Instance of the Verb *to call*, these Signs in all the Tenses not only give Notice of the Times to which the several Tenses relate, but likewise of the Nature of the State that is signified by the Root *called*: For the same Root, in the Active Voice, signifies a State

of Action ; as, *I called, I have called, &c.* But in this Voice, by the Help of different Signs, it signifies a State of Reception of the Effect of calling ; as, *I was called, I have been called* ; and these States, in Grammar, are considered as Passive States.

It is the same in all the regular Verbs ; viz. the same Word which has an Active Sense in the first Preterite, and all the compound, past, or perfect Tenses of the Active Voice, is applied through the whole Passive Voice, in a Passive Signification. Thus : *I loved, had loved, shall have loved ; may, must, might, could, would, should have loved*, are active Expressions : But *I am, was, have been, had been, shall have been, may be, must be, might have been, must have been loved*, are all passive Expressions.

This Root, which bears both an Active and Passive Signification by the Means of different Signs, ends in *ed* in all the regular Verbs.

Of the Middle Voice.

There is no Necessity to draw out this Voice at large : For in order to compose its several Tenses in each Mood, nothing more is necessary than to take the Participle in *ing* of any Verb, and to place it after the several Forms of the Verb *to be* ; as, *I am calling, I was calling, I have been calling, I had been calling, I shall be calling, I shall have been calling, &c.* so that the Middle Voice differs in nothing from the Passive Voice, except in the different Root that is used in composing its several Tenses.

The principal Use of this Voice is to express all Sorts of Verbal States *as not completed at the Time to which*
the

the Tense relates ; as, *be is coming, they were sitting, we shall be standing, &c.*

Of the irregular English Verbs.

Before the irregular Verbs can be conjugated, their Roots must be known : And as the Knowledge of these Roots can only be acquired by Memory, I have reduced them, in the following Section, to several Classes : And this so as to assist the Learner's Memory, by placing all those in the same Class which form their Roots nearly in the same Manner : And because Foreigners find this part of our Language somewhat intricate ; for their Use have reduced the Lists of Verbs in each Class to such Kind of Verses in Rhime, as the Subject admits of. These Verses may, perhaps, be more easy to get by Heart than any other Kind of Lists of the same Verbs.

Observe, that the first Root is called *the Imperfect Root*; the second, *the Indefinite*; and the third, *the Perfect Root*. There is no Difficulty in forming the fourth Root, or Participle in *ing*, because it is composed in the regular Verbs as it is in the regular : And hence there is no Occasion to take particular Notice of its Formation amongst the Roots of irregular Verbs.

If the Formation of the Roots of the English irregular Verbs.

These may be reduced to five principal Classes.

The first Class consists of Verbs in which *all the three Roots are the same.*

The second Class, of Verbs in which the *second and third Roots* (i. e. the Indefinite and Perfect Roots) are the

the same, but are not formed by *ed*, as in the regular Verbs.

The third Class consists of Verbs in which the *third Root* is derived from the *second*: i. e. in which the *Perfect Root* is not the same with the *Indefinite*; but is nevertheless derived from it.

The fourth Class, of Verbs in which the *first and third Roots* (i. e. the *Imperfect and Perfect Roots*) are the same.

The fifth Class, of Verbs in which the *third Root* is derived from the *first*: i. e. in which the *Perfect Root* is not the same with the *Imperfect*; but is nevertheless derived from it.

The second Class is by much the largest; and therefore it may be convenient to reduce the Verbs of which it consists to inferior Sorts; each Sort comprehending such Verbs as are nearly the same with each other in the Change or Addition of Letters in the Formation of their Roots.

The Verbs of the FIRST CLASS are Thirteen in Number, viz.

<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Indefinite.</i>	<i>Perfect Root.</i>
Cast	Cast	Cast
Cost	Cost	Cost
Cut	Cut	Cut
Hit	Hit	Hit
Hurt	Hurt	Hurt
Knit	Knit	Knit
Split	Split	Split
Let	Let	Let
Put	Put	Put

Set	Set	Set
Shed	Shed	Shed
Shut	Shut	Shut
Slit	Slit	Slit

The Form remains unvaried which is plac'd
In the three Roots of *bit*, *cut*, *coft*, and *caſt* ;
The like obtains in *burt*, and *knit*, and *ſplit*,
Likewise in *let*, *put*, *ſet*, *ſhed*, *ſbut*, and *ſlit*.

The Verbs of THE SECOND CLASS, in which the second and third Roots are both alike, may be reduced to four inferior Classes, or Sorts.

First Sort, in which the final Letters of all the Roots remain the same ; the second and third Roots being formed by changing one Vowel for another, or the long Sound of a Vowel or Diphthong into its short Sound, or by other Alterations, which do not affect the last Letters of the Roots. The Verbs of this Sort are thirty-eight or thirty-nine in Number.

and, stood, stood	B-ind, b-ound, b-ound
hang } hang-ed, hang-ed	F-ind
h-ung, h-ung	Gr-ind
ead, l-ed, l-ed	W-ind
ead, r-ead, r-eād	Dig { Digged, digged
r-ead, spr-ead spr-eād	{ dug, dug
eed, bl-ed, bl-ed	St-ick, st-uck st-uck
eed	Sw-im { fw-am, fw-um
eed	fw-um,
eed	Fl-ing, fl-ang, fl-ung
heet, m-et, m-et	Cl-ing
de, b-ode, b-ode	R-ing
-ide	

S-ing, † f-ang f-ung
f-ung

Sl-ing

Spr-ing

St-ing

Str-ing

Sw-ing

Wr-ing

Beg-in, † beg-an,
beg-un, beg-un

Sp-in, † span,
sp-un, sp-un

W-in, † w-an,
w-on, w-on

Stand, stood; bang, bung, and bang'd; but lead has led,

Read, Read; spread, spread; bleed, bled; and breed has bred,

*While Feed and speed have Roots in fed and sped.
Meet, met; bide and abide in bode; bind, bound;
Find, grind, and wind have found, and ground, and wound,*

*Digged and dug, as Roots from dig are found.
Stick, stuck; swim, † fwam and fwum; † flang, fun from fling;*

So cling, ring, sing, sling, spring, sting, string, swing, wring,

*Have Roots in † ang, and ung; began, begun
Come from begin: So spin has † span and spun;
Shine, shined, shone; and win has † wan and won.
Or † drank or drunk appear as Roots from drink,
And of like Forms from sink, slink, shrink and stink.
In former Times † thrusted and † thrusten came
From thrust; but now its Roots are all the same.*

Sh-ine, shINED,
+ sh-one, sh-one

Dr-ink, † d-rank,
dr-unck, dr-un

S-ink

Sl-link

Sh-rink

St-ink

Thr-ust, thr †-usted,
-ust,

thr †-usten,
-ust

Second
which t
first, by
ive in I

Build,

Lend,

Rend,

Buil
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Third
mediate
thers,
likewise
nal Sy
ort are

lake,
ave,
ay, p-
ay, s-a

Dream

-e
dr -e

Mean,
leave,

leave,

ereave

Tell,

*Second Sort of the second Class of irregular Verbs, in which the second and third Roots are derived from the first, by changing the final *d* into *t*. These Verbs are five in Number.*

Build, built, built	Send, sent, sent
Lend, lent, lent	Spend, spent, spent
Rend, rent, rent	

*Build, lend, rend, send, and spend, their final *d* In both their other Roots change to a *t*.*

*Third Sort of the second Class, in which the intermediate Vowels are changed; or, if not changed into others, are altered in Sound, and the Letter *d* or *t* is likewise added; or in which some Consonants in the final Syllable are changed to a *d*. The Verbs of this Sort are Twenty-one in Number.*

A-ake, m-ade, m-ade	S-ell, f-old, f-old
H-ave, h-ad, h-ad	D-eal d-ealt, d-ealt
ay, p-aid, p-aid	F-eel, f-elt, f-elt
ay, f-aid, f-aid	Fl-ee, fl-ed, fl-ed
Dream, dr -eamed,	Cr-eep, cr-ept, cr-ept
-eamt,	K-eep
dr -eamed,	Sl-eep
-eamt	Sw-eep
Mean, m-eant, m-eant	W-eep
Leave, left, left,	Clothe, cl -othed, cl -othed
Reave, r -eaved, r -eaved	-ad, cl -ad
-eft, -eft	Sh-oe, sh -oed, sh -oed
Sereave	-od, sh -od
T-ell, t-old, t-old	Lose, l-ost, l-ost

Make, made ; have, had ; pay, paid ; say, said ; leave, left ;

Dream, dreamt ; mean, meant ; reave and bereave have reft.

Tell, told ; sell, sold ; deal forms its Roots in dealt ; And flee has fled ; and feel has Roots in felt.

Crept, kept, and slept, proceed from creep, keep, sleep. And swept and wept descend from sweep and weep.

Clothe, cloth'd and clad ; shoe, shoo'd and stoo'd become, And lose in lost its Radicals assumes.

The fourth Sort of the second Class, in which the second and third Roots are both formed from the first by ought, the u being the latter Vowel of a Diphthong. The Verbs of this Sort are Eight in Number.

<i>Teach-t</i>	<i>-eached, t-eached,</i>	<i>t-aught, -aught</i>
<i>Bes-eech, bes-ought, bes-</i>	<i>ought</i>	
<i>S-eek, s-ought, s-ought</i>		
<i>B-uy, b-ought, b-ought</i>		

<i>F-ight, f-ought, f-ought</i>	
<i>Br-ing, br-ought, br-oug</i>	
<i>Th-ink, th-ought, th-ou</i>	
<i>Work - w</i>	<i>-orked,</i>
	<i>-rought,</i>
	<i>-orked,</i>
	<i>w</i> -rought

Teach, taught ; beseech, beseeched, and besought ; Seek, sought ; buy, bought ; fight, fought ; and bring has brought, And think has thought, and work has work'd and wrought.

THE THIRD CLASS of irregular Verbs, in which the third or Perfect Root is derived from the second or Indefinite Root. The Verbs of this Class are Twenty-five in Number.

L-ay, l-aid, l-ain, l-aid		Tr-ead, tr-ode, tr-odd-en, t-rod, tr-od
r-eak, † br-ake, br-oken, br-oke br-oke		sw-ollen,
p-eak, † sp-ake, sp-oken sp-oke, sp-oke		Sw-ell, fw-elled, fw-elled
t-eal, ft-olen, ft-ole, ft-ole		G-et, † g-at, g-otten, g-ot, g-ot
b-ear, † b-are, born b-ore,		S-eeth, † f-od, † f-odd-en, f-eethed, f-od, f-eethed
sh-ear, † sh-are, sh-orn sh-ore,		L-ie, l-aid, l-aid l-ay, l-ain
w-ear, † fw-are, fw-worn fw-ore,		Str-ide, str-ode, str-id str-id, str-id
t-ear, t-are, t-orn t-ore,		H-ide, h-id, h-id h-idden
v-ear, † w-are, w-worn w-ore,		Sl-ide, sl-id, sl-id sl-id, sl-id
cl-eave, † cl-ave, cl-eft, cl-eft, cl-eaved, cl-eaved		R-ide, r-ode, r-ode, r-id, r-id
cl-ove, cl-oven		B-ite, b-it, b-it b-itten,
h-eave, *h-ove, *h-oven, h-eaved, h-eaved		W-rite, wr-it, wr-it, wr-ote, wr-ote, wr-written
w-eave, w-ove, w-ove, w-eaved, w-eaved, w-over		Ch-oose, ch-ose, ch-ose cho-sen,
		Sh-oot, sh-ot, sh-ot sh-otten,

Upon the following Verbs three Roots attend ;
And from the second Roots the third descend.

Lay, laid and lain ; † brake, broken, broke from break ;
So spoke, spoke, spoken all descend from speak.

* Hove and hoven are of doubtful Authority.

*Steal, stole, and stolen ; + bare, bore, born from bear,
+ Share, shore, shorn, + sware, swore, sworn from
shear and swear ;*

*+ Tare, tore, torn, + ware, wore, worn, from tear
and wear.*

*+ Clave, cleft, and cloven, are the Roots from
cleave ;*

Hove, heaved, hoven, all descend from heave.

Wove, weaved, woven, are deduc'd from weave.

*Swell, swell'd, and + swollen ; tread, trode, trodden
trod ;*

Get, + gat, got, gotten ; + seeth, + seethed, and + sed,

And Sodden ; lie, lay, lain ; stride, strode, and strid,

And stridden ; hide in hidden forms and hid :

So slide, slid, slidden ; ride, rode, ridden, rid ;

Bite, bit and bitten ; write, writ, written, wrote ;

Choose, chose and chosen ; shoot, shotten and shot.

THE FOURTH CLASS of irregular Verbs, in which the third or Perfect Root is the same with the first or Imperfect Root, whilst the second Root is different. The simple Verbs of this Class are but two, viz.

Come, came, come ; run, ran, run : But they have several Compounds ; as, become, overcome, out-run, over-run, &c.

In come, came, come ; and run, ran, run ; the Word which is the first Root also is the third.

THE FIFTH CLASS of irregular Verbs, in which the third or Perfect Root is derived from the first or Imperfect Root. Twenty-eight in Number.

Dare, durst,	dared, dared	Smite, smote, smitten,
For-sake, for-sook,	for-faken	Rise, rose, risen
T-ake, t-ook,	t-aiken woke,	Arise
Wake, w-aked,	waked † a-woke,	Give gave, given
Awake,	awoke	Rive, rived, riven
Grave, graved,	† graven graved	Drive, † drove, driven
Fall, fell,	fallen	† Shrive, shrove, shriven
Eat, eat,	eaten	Strive, strove, striven
Beat, beat,	beaten	Thrive, thronged, thriven
Sweat, sweat,	† sweaten sweated,	Do, did, done
Bid, bid,	† bad bid	Go, went, gone
Sit, sat,	fitten	Hold, held, holden, held
Spit, spit,	spit, spitted,	Burst, burst, bursten, burst
Slay, flew,	slain	Help, helpt, helped,
See, saw,	seen	† holpen
Fly, flew,	flown	Strike, struck, † stricken
Draw, drew,	drawn	
Saw, sawed,	fawn	

The following Verbs are of this fifth Class, but are placed by themselves, on Account of the Analogy by which the most of them form their second or Indefinite Root. These are twelve in Number.

Slay, flew,	slain	Hew, hewed, hewn
See, saw,	seen	Blow, blew, blown
Fly, flew,	flown	crewe,
Draw, drew,	drawn	Crow, crowed, crown
Saw, sawed,	fawn	Grow, grew, grown

Know, knew, known	or,	For t
Throw, threw, thrown	Shew, shewed, shewn	Voice in
Show, showed, shown		

Verbs of the following Class, by settled Use,
From their first Radical the third deduce.

Dare, dared, durst; forsaken and forsook
Come from *forsake*; so *take, taken* and *took*.
Wake, waked, woke, and waken; so *awake*; Preser
Grave, graved, graven; fall, fell, fallen take. formed
Eat, eat, and eaten; beat, beaten, and beat;
So + *sweaten, sweat* and *sweated* come from *swat*.
Bid, bad, bid, bidden; sitten, sat from *sit*;
So *spat, spit, spitted* are derived from *spit*.
Smite, smote and smitten; rise, arise, have rose
And *risen*; *give in gave* and *given* shows
Its Roots. But *riv'd* and *riven* come from *rive*;
Drave, drove and *driven*, are the Roots from *driv*.
Thus + *shrive* has + *shrove* and + *shritten*; *shri* has *strove*
And shriuen; likewise *thrive, thriven* and *throve*.
Hold, held and holden; do has *did* and *done*;
And *go* has *went* from + *wend* and likewise *gone*.
Bursten from *burst*, or else its Roots alike;
Help, helpt and *holpen*; *stricken*, *struck* from *strike*.
Slay, slew and *slain*; *see, saw* and *seen*; *fly, flew*
And *flown*; whilst *draw* has Roots in *drawn* and *draw*.
Saw, sawed, sawn; *bew, bewed, bewn*; and *show*
Showed and shrown; but *blow, crow, grow, know,* All
throu, feet R

Of Roots which end in *ew* and *own* allow.

When these Roots are known, the Formation of the Tenses of the several Verbs is very easy.

For the *First or Imperfect Root* is used in the Active Voice in the following Tenses, viz.

Infinitive Mood.

Present and Future.

Indicative Mood.

Present and First Future, and the First Preterite when formed by the Sign *did*.

Imperative.

Present.

Potential.

Present and First Indefinite.

Subjunctive.

Present.

The *Second or Indefinite Root* is only used in the First Preterite of the Indicative Mood when simple, or formed without the Sign *did*.

All the other Tenses are formed by the *Third or Perfect Root*, viz.

In the Infinitive Mood.

The Preterite and past Participle.

Indicative.

The Second Preterite, Pluperfect, and Second Future.

Potential

Potential.

The Preterite, and Second Indefinite.

Subjunctive.

Second Preterite.

The whole Passive Voice is formed by *the Third Perfect Root*; and the whole Middle Voice by the Fourth Root, which ends in *ing*.

As to THE FORMATION OF THE PERSONS OF THE VERB; the simple Present, and simple first Preterite of the Indicative take the Syllable *est*, or the Letters *ft*, subjoined to the first Person Singular, in order to form the second Person Singular; as, *I call, thou calleſt* or *call'ft*; *I called, thou calledſt*, or *call'dft*; *I tell, thou telleſt*, or *tell'ft*; *I told, thou toldſt*, &c.

THE
The third Person Singular of the Simple Present of the Indicative, was anciently formed from the first Person by subjoining *eth*; as, *I call, he calleth*; *I tell, he telleth*. But this Form is now disused, except in the solemn Style of the Scriptures. The Formation of this Person which now obtains, is by proceeding in the same Manner as in forming the Plural of Substantives from the Singular, *viz.* by adding an *s* to the first Person Singular, without Increase of Syllables; as, *I call, he calls*.

But if the first Person ends in silent *e* after *c, g, s, or z*, an *s* is subjoined to the first Person, and the Syllable *es* is thus added to it for the third; as, *I raise, he raises*; *I piece, be pieces*; *I engage, he engages*; *I blaze, be blazes*.

If the first Person ends in *y*, not Part of a Diphthong, the third is formed by *ies*; as, *I fly, he flies; I cry, he tries*, &c.

If the first Person ends in *ch, s, sh, x* or *z*, the third Person is formed by adding *es* to the End of the first; as, *I teach, he teaches; I pass, he passes; I wash, he washes; I vex, he vexes; I buzz, he buzzes*, &c.

But Verbs in *f*, or *fe*, retain the *f* in the third Person; as, *I chafe, he chafes; I quaff, he quaffs*, &c.

As THE PARTICIPLE is shewn to belong to the Verb as properly as any of the other Moods, there is no Necessity (at least in English) for considering it distinctly from the other Moods or Forms of the Verb.

S E C T. IV.

THE remaining Parts of Speech, *viz. the Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition, and Interjection* may be considered in the same Section, without Impropriety: For they have no Diversity of grammatic Forms as the other Parts of Speech have.

ADVERBS denote Circumstances which coalesce with what is partly expressed by a Verb or Adjective, but not with what is partly expressed by a Substantive; thus, *excessively* is an Adverb: For *to work excessively, excessively wise*, are consistent Expressions; and *to work*, is a Verb; and *wise*, is an Adjective; but *a work excessively*, is an inconsistent Expression; and *a work*, is a Substantive; and so of other Instances.

Much the greatest Number of English Adverbs are derived from Adjectives, by subjoining the Syllable *ly*; as,

as, from *excessive*, *excessively*; and so *wise*, *wisely*; *foolish*, *foolishly*, &c.

There are likewise several Adverbs which do not end in *ly*, although the Conceptions denoted by them are nearly of the same Nature with those denoted by the Adverbs above-mentioned; such as *always*, *apace*, *away*, *awry*, &c.

And besides these there are

The Negative Adverbs; *not*, *never*.

The Redditive; *yes*, *no*.

The Relative; *why*, *when*, *how*, *where*, *whence*, *whether*.

The Demonstrative; *thus*, *so*, *now*, *then*, *there*, *here*.

The Conjunctive; *moreover*, *furthermore*, &c.

Of the CONJUNCTION.

CONJUNCTIONS are used both to connect Words in the same Sentence, and likewise to connect different Sentences, by certain Declarations concerning the Words or Sentences themselves; which Declarations it would be inconvenient to make by Sentences expressed at large, as often as the Use of Language requires.

Conjunctions may be reduced to the eleven following Sorts.

COPULATIVE; *and*, *also*, *as well as*, *likewise*, *neither*, *nor*.

DISJUNCTIVE; *either*, *or*.

DISCRETIVE; *but*, *except*, *save* or *saving*.

CONDITIONAL; *if*, *if so be*, *provided*, *unless*.

ADVERSATIVE,

or

CONCESSIVE;

} *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*.

RED

REDITIVE; *yet, still, nevertheless.*

CAUSAL; *for, because, seeing, forasmuch as; and since, so, when, whereas,* on some Occasions.

ILLATIVE; *therefore, wherefore; and now, then, on some Occasions.*

EXCEPTIVE; *unless, otherwise.*

RESTRICTIVE; *as, so.*

CASUAL, or SENTENTIAL DEMONSTRATIVE; *that.*

When Conjunctions are used to connect Words in the same Sentence, there is some common Word or Expression in the Sentence; and this is either referred to several other Words, or they to it.

Thus you may make a Kind of complex Substantive out of several Substantives, by placing the Conjunction *and* between them; as, *a man and a woman*; but the Object denoted by such an Expression will be of the Plural Number, even though each of the Substantives be of the Singular; and therefore, if a Definitive Verb be the common Word which is referred to such a complex Expression, the Verb must be of the Plural Number; as, *a man and a woman ARE TALKING*; and so you may make in Effect one oblique Case of two or more Substantives, by interposing *and*; as, *the talk OF THE MAN AND WOMAN*: For here *the Man and Woman* is in Effect one Genitive Case Plural, depending on *the talk*; and so several Adjectives may be reduced in Effect to one complex Adjective by *and*; as, *A GOOD AND WISE AND VIRTUOUS Man*, and several Adverbs to one complex Adverb; as, *to do WELL AND WISELY*.

If either *and* or *or* are used to connect Words, it is shewn that *any* of the References, or that *some* one of them without determining *which*, will answer the Speaker's Purpose;

as, in either you, or he, or they may go. You, and he, and they are represented as equally free from Impediment as to going: But in either you, or he, or they must go, only some of the Persons are represented as under an Obligation to go, or as under a Necessity of going; but it is not specified which of the Persons is so. As it is not specified which of the Persons is to go, we are obliged to keep them all in our Mind as much as if the Conjunction and had been used; and this is the Connection which the Grammarians have called *joining the Words*; but *disjoining the Sense*.

Neither and nor are the Negatives of either and or therefore the Expressions neither you, nor he, nor they may go, is equivalent to not any of the Persons denoted by you, he, and they, must go; and so of other Instances.

But gives Notice of some Exception; as, all my Acquaintance but you are of my Opinion, i. e. except you. I do not fear but we shall succeed; i. e. I do not fear that any Exception need be made to the Truth of the Expression we shall succeed; and so of other Instances.

The rest of the Conjunctions usually connect full Sentences with each other; and those above described do the same.

When copulative Conjunctions are thus used, Notice is given, that the Speaker is considering what all the Sentences denote in one View; as, I will speak, and you must hear me.

When Disjunctives are used, any of the Sentence equally make for the Speaker's Purpose, or some of them but without determining which: Thus, in the Expression we may either go to our Friends, or they may come to us

be, and we may meet them at such a Place : Any of the Sentences will equally answer the Speaker's Purpose. But in I have either read the Book, or some one told me the Contents of it; only one of the Sentences shews the Speaker's Situation ; but it is not determined which of them does so.

When *Discretives* are used, the Sentence that has the Discretive before it expresses something that looks like an Exception to what might be expected or concluded from Circumstances ; as, in *the Messengers are returned, but they have brought no Letters*, it is insinuated that their bringing no Letters is not according to what might have been expected.

When *Conditionals* are used, a Supposition is made ; as, *if I go, you will be left alone* ; i. e. supposing, or on the Supposition, that I go, &c.

When *Adversatives* or *Concessives* are used, there is an Appearance that one Sentence opposes or withstands the Truth of another, whilst yet, in Reality, it does not prevent the Truth of it ; as, *notwithstanding that you oppose me I shall succeed* ; i. e. your Opposition to me will not, in Reality, prevent or withstand my Success, whatsoever Appearances may be to the contrary.

When *Redditives* are used, they shew that the Truth of what is said is *no less certain*, on Account of something that is taken for granted ; as, *though you should oppose me, nevertheless I shall succeed* ; i. e. my Success will be no less certain if it should be allowed, or taken for granted, than you oppose me.

When *Causals* are used, the Sentence which depends on one of them shews the Cause or Reason why Things are

are as some other Expression represents them ; as, *I must do thus because I have given my Word* ; i. e. my having given my Word is the Cause or Reason why I must do thus.

When *Illatives* are used, a Consequence is drawn from something that is said ; as, *I have given my Word therefore I must do this* ; i. e. my being under a Necessity of doing this, is the Consequence of my Word or Promise given.

Exceptives denote Negative Suppositions ; as, *I will go unless you forbid me* ; i. e. supposing that you do not forbid me.

Restrictives give Notice of the Comparison of Sameness or Similarity ; as, *I am as thou art* ; *my people as thy people*. Old Testament ; i. e. I am in the same Disposition in which thou art ; my People in the same in which thy People are.

That, when used as a *casual or sentential demonstrative Conjunction*, gives Notice, that a whole Sentence which depends upon it has the Effect of one Noun Substantive in some Case ; thus, in *I know that my Redeemer liveth* the Sentence *my Redeemer liveth*, expresses that which is known, and is therefore equivalent to one Substantive in the Accusative Case. See Rule XXVI. of the following Syntax.

Of the PREPOSITION.

PREPOSITIONS are Notices to apply certain connective Operations of the Mind to the Conceptions denoted by Substantives, so as to derive from them Conception

Circumstances merely coalescent ; i. e. such as will unite with Objects and verbal States, without Encrease of Number ; thus, a Seat before the Fire denotes but one seat, and yet two Objects ; the Seat and the Fire are concerned in the Expression : Therefore the Preposition before, by which the Names seat and fire are connected, is Notice to consider the fire, in such a Manner as to form Conception from it which will unite with Seat into the objective Conception, and this by a particular Mode of Consideration or Contemplation of the Mind of Man ; and so in the Expression to sit before the fire. The objective State to sit, and the Object the fire, are concerned ; and yet the Preposition before, is a Notice to contemplate the fire in such a Manner, as to form a Conception of the State out of the whole Expression to sit before the fire. The other Prepositions are of the same Nature with before, only the Mode of Consideration or Contemplation is conceived to be different when a different Preposition is required to give Notice of it.

The English Prepositions are as follow :

before, before	Between, betwixt
against	Among, amongst
Beside, or besides	amidst
Near, nigh, (and by, when it signifies Vicinity of Place)	About, around
WITH	Through, or thorough
Toward, or towards	throughout
To, unto	Out of, without
at	After, behidn
Into	beyond
IN, within	Off, FROM
	Above, over
	On, UPON

Below,

<i>Below, beneath</i>	OF
<i>Under, underneath</i>	BY
<i>Up,</i>	FOR
<i>Down</i>	THAN

Of these Prepositions, those which are printed in Capitals are considered as the Signs of oblique Cases of Substantives, as appears by the Forms of Declension already given, and by Rules XIII. XIV. &c. of the following Syntax.

All the Prepositions, except *of, by* (when it is a Sign of the Ablative Case) *for* and *than*, are used to refer Conceptions of Place to other Conceptions denoted by Nouns or Verbs, so as to ascertain the Position or Situation of that which the Nouns or Verbs denote; as, *house, before, beside, near, behind, the church; to stand, before, beside, near, behind the church, &c.*

This is their primary and proper Use: But they are applied, by Analogy, to refer all Sorts of Objects to each other under Modes of Conception or Estimation, similar to those by which Place is estimated.

The principal Kinds of Application of each of the Prepositions are shewn in the following Syntax.

A Preposition may either connect two Words together, as in the Examples above; or may unite with Noun or Verb, so as to become an inseparable Part thereof; as, in *undertaker, overseer, after-thought, downfall; to undertake, to oversee, to forecast, &c.* The Meaning of Words is often so much altered by this Kind of Composition, that the Resemblance between the simple and compound Words is almost lost; thus, *to foredo*

does not mean to cast forwards, but to take Thought for any Thing before it comes to pass ; and so of very many Words.

Much the greatest Number of our compound Words have been taken from the Greek, Latin, or French : And hence it is, that there is scarce a Preposition in these Languages, which does not begin some English Word : Thus, *Apostle*, *Epistle*, *Sympathy*, begin with the Greek Prepositions, *apo*, *epi*, *syn*; *aversion*, *extraction*, *immerion*, with the Latin Prepositions, *a*, *ex*, *in*; *surrender*, *enterprize*, *engagement*, with the French Prepositions, *sur*, *entre*, *en*; and so of many other Words.

Of the INTERJECTION.

INTERJECTIONS are short Expressions, used to denote, in the most expeditious Manner, the Disposition of the speaker's Mind, or his Intent, when his Situation makes inconvenient, or impossible, to use compleat Sentences.

The principal Interjections in English are as follow :

Of taking Leave ; *adieu*.

Sorrow ; *ah*, *ah that*, *alack*, *alack-a-day*, *alass*, *alass-a-day*.

Dislike ; *fj*, *fob*, *avaunt*, *off*, *pif*, *pshaw*, *pugh*.

Surprise ; *hab*, *strange*, *what*, *heyday*, *aba*.

Laughter ; *ha*, *ha*, *he*.

Incitement to Dogs ; *balloo*, *bavoc*.

Incitement to Attention ; *bark*, *lo*, *see*.

Exhortation to Silence ; *bush*, *bift*, *peace*, *silence*.

Notice of Deliberation ; *hum*.

Of Languor ; *heigh*, *ho*.

Of Exultation ; *heigh*, *huzza*.

To

To those at a Distance to attend ; *bolla, soho, ho,* &
eva, what ho.

Salutation ; Solemn ; *hail, all hail.*

Friendly ; *well-met, welcome.*

Indication of Pain ; *oh.*

Of the Exertion of some violent Effort ; *bab.*

Of Wishing ; *O, O that.*

Of Approbation ; *well done, very well.*

Injunction to remit Speed, or other Effort ; *soft, softly.*

B O O K II.

Of SYNTAX.

THIS Part of Grammar consists of Rules for the disposing of Words in connected Series, so as to communicate the Conceptions and diverse Operations of one Man to another : The Means of effecting this are considerably different in different Languages ; but in English they are exceeding simple and easy.

SYNTAX is considered as of two Sorts; *the regular* and *the figurative.*

Of regular Syntax.

This consists of two Parts, called *Concord* and *Regiment*.

CONCORD (at least in the English) consists of two Parts ; the one relating to the Order of placing Words in Series, according to the established Custom of the

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language ; the other to the Correspondence of grammatical Terminations in several of the Parts of Speech, when united in Series.

REGIMENT relates to the Cases of dependent Substantives, shewing how they are to be consistently applied : And the Application of the Tenses and Moods of Verbs, and of the Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Prepositions, may likewise be included in this Part of Syntax.

Rules for THE ORDER OF POSITION OF WORDS;
which, in English, answers several of the Purposes of what is called CONCORD in Greek and Latin.

1. 1. In Sentences at large, us'd to declare,
The Nom'native before the Verbs appear.
2. But in a Question, Wish, or a Command,
The Nom'native behind the Verbs must stand.
3. Of every simple Tense ; but, if complex,
After the Signs we Nom'native annex.
4. And Suppositions, not by *if* receive,
After the Verb or Sign a Nom'native.

1. In declarative Sentences the Nominative Case stands before the Verb ; as,

THE LORD GOD FORMED *Man* of the Dust of the Ground. Old Testament.

2. But when a Question is asked, or a Command given, or a Wish expressed, if the Verb be of any simple Tense, the Nominative Case is placed behind the Verb ; as,

BELIEVEST THOU the Prophets ? New Testament.

STAND THOU here by me. New Testament.

FAR BE THE THOUGHT of this from Henry's Heart.
Shakespear.

3. If the Verb that expresses a Question, Command, or Wish, be of any compound Tense, the Nominative Case stands after the Sign of the Tense ; as,

HAST THOU EATEN of the Tree whereof I command thee that thou shouldest not eat ? Old Testament.

Be not afraid, neither BE THOU DISMAYED. Old Test.

MAY YOU LIVE happily and long for the Service of your Country. Dryden.

4. And when a Supposition is made without giving Notice of it by *if*, the Nominative Case stands after the Verb, if it be simple ; but if it be of a compound Tense, after the Sign ; as,

WERE I as you. Philips. For *If I were as you COULD GREAT MEN THUNDER.* Shakespear. For *if great Men could thunder.*

It is likewise to be observed, that when a Sentence depends on *neither*, or *nor*, so as to be coupled with another Sentence, the Nominative Case usually stands after the Verb, or Sign ; as, *ye shall not eat of it, neither SHALL YE TOUCH it, lest ye die.* Old Testament.

II. In compound Tenses, Adverbs oft are seen ;
And sometimes other Words, the Verb and Sign between.

Adverbs are often placed between the Sign and the Verb of all the compound Tenses ; as,

He would REALLY WANT a Dictionary, and would HARDLY AT FIRST BELIEVE at what a low Rate the highest Strains and Expressions of Kindness DO COMMONLY PASS in current Payment. Tillotson.

And other Sorts of Words, as well as Adverbs, are frequently placed between the Sign and the Verb ; as,

I had but one Soul, IT COULD NOT AT THE SAME TIME PANT after Virtue and Vice. Spectat. No. 564.

III. The Genitive by 's Use has decreed,
Must go before a Noun, and that by *of* succeed.

The Genitive Case that is formed by subjoining *an s* to the Nominative, goes before its corresponding Substantive ; as,

Sara; ABRAM'S WIFE. Old Testament.

THE MARSHAL'S TRUNCHEON, and THE JUDGE'S OBE. Shakespear.

But the Genitive Case by *of* prefixed, is placed behind its correspondent Substantive ; as,

The ancient FAMILY OF THE BLANKS. Spectat. No. 563.

IV. After Verbs transitive those Nouns appear,
To which the Verbs their passive States transfer.

The Position of a Substantive after a transitive Verb, applies, in English, the Effect of the Accusative Case, Greek and Latin ; as,

I GIVE ADVICE; REDRESS GRIEVANCES. Spectat.
Where *Advice* denotes *the Thing given*, and *Grievances*, *the Thing redressed*; therefore these Nouns are here in the same Connection as that denoted in Greek and Latin, by the Accusative Case, in Dependence upon a transitive Verb.

It appears, from the Declensions of the Pronouns, at *I, thou, he, she, we, ye, they*, and the Relative *who*, we each of them an Accusative Case different from the Nominative : But that *it, which, and that*, have no such Case: Yet, without having this grammatic Form, these are

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Be not afraid, neither BE THOU DISMAYED. Old Test.

MAY YOU LIVE happily and long for the Service of your Country. Dryden.

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Adverbs are often placed between the Sign and the Verb of all the compound Tenses ; as,

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Must go before a Noun, and that by *of* succeed.

The Genitive Case that is formed by subjoining *an s* to the Nominative, goes before its corresponding Substantive ; as,

Sarai, ABRAM'S WIFE. Old Testament.

THE MARSHAL'S TRUNCHEON, and THE JUDGE'S ROBE. Shakespear.

But the Genitive Case by *of* prefixed, is placed behind its correspondent Substantive ; as,

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Where *Advice* denotes the *Thing given*, and *Grievances*, the *Thing redressed*; therefore these Nouns are here in the same Connection as that denoted in Greek and Latin, by the Accusative Case, in Dependence upon a transitive Verb.

It appears, from the Declensions of the Pronouns, that *I, thou, he, she, we, ye, they*, and the Relative *who*, have each of them an Accusative Case different from the Nominative : But that *it, which, and that*, have no such Case : Yet, without having this grammatical Form, these

are

are of the same Effect, when placed in immediate Dependence on a transitive Verb, as the Accusative Forms of the other Pronouns : Thus, in the Expression *to see him, her, and it ; him, and her, and it,* each of them denotes an Object seen, and therefore are equally of the Accusative Case.

V. Before their Clauses plac'd, by settled Use,
The Relatives these Clauses introduce.

This will appear, by Examples, at Rule XI. where the Method is shewn of determining the Case of the Relative.

VI. To Adjectives prefix'd we Adverbs find,
But Verbs require them to be plac'd behind.

Adverbs are usually placed before Adjectives; as
Wisdom is TRULY FAIR. Milton.

And behind Verbs; as,
They ACT WISELY. Rogers.

He made him THINK MORE REASONABLY. Dryden.

This last Rule admits of many Exceptions; for some Adverbs are placed behind Adjectives; as, *a man WISER INDEED :* And many Adverbs are as frequently placed before a Verb as behind it: Thus, we may either say *I VERY MUCH APPROVE of such a Thing ; or, I APPROVE VERY MUCH of such a Thing ; or, I APPROVE of such Thing VERY MUCH ;* and so of very many other Instances. Most of the other Rules, for the Order of placing Words, likewise admit of Exceptions, especially in very solemn or very familiar Language, and principally in Poetry. Use and Observation will enable any one to discern the principal Instances of Departure from these Rules; and the Knowledge of the Rules will be

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the Instances where they obtain, and those in which
they may be safely departed from.

Of C O N C O R D.

TH E CONCORDS are usually considered as three.

THE FIRST, between the *Nominative Case* and the Verb.

THE SECOND, between the *Substantive* and the *Adjective*.

THE THIRD, between the *Relative* and its *Antecedent*.

The Rule of the first Concord.

VII. In personal Construction Verbs receive

Number and Person from a Nom'native.

This Rule shews how to give a proper Form to a compleat Sentence, by making the grammatic Form of the Definitive Verb suit the Number and Person of the Object on the Name of which the Verb depends. This Name is much the most frequently of the Nominative Case; but it may be of the Vocative; and an objective Verb, or a whole Series of Words, may, on some Occasions, supply the Place of such a Name, as will quickly appear by Examples.

The most simple Forms of compleat Sentences are those which appear in the Definitive Moods of the Conjugation of the Verb, viz. *I have, thou hast, he has, we, you, they have; I am, thou art, he is, we, you, they are; I call, thou callest, he calls, we, you, they call.*

Therefore we must not say, *I, we, you, they hast*, or *bathe, or has*, for these Expressions would be false Concord; but *I, we, you, they have*.

Nor

* The Verb is Definitive in all its Forms, but those of the Infinitive Mood and the Participles: It is Objective when the Infinitive Forms or the Participles are used as Substantives.

Nor must we say, *I*, or *thou*, or *he are*, for *I*, *thou* and *be are* of the Singular Number; and *are* is of the Plural; so that these Expressions would be false Concord: Nor must we say *you was*; for *you* is of the second Person, and *was* is of the third; and *you* is of the Plural Number, even though used as the Name of a single Person, and *was* is of the Singular; therefore, to preserve the Concord, we must say *you were*; and so of other Instances.

Every Substantive and objective Verb is of the third Person, unless the Pronoun *I*, or *we*, or *thou*, or *you*, is set before it, or it be the Name of the Object addressed.

If *I* or *we* is set before a Name, it is of the first Person; as, *I*, *N—N—*, declare; *we*, *N— and M—*, promise.

If *thou* or *you* be set before a Name, or it be the Name of the Object addressed, it is of the second Person; as, *thou Lord ART gracious*; *you Children MUST BE silent*; *Lord BE merciful unto me*.

Observe, that a Name of Multitude, though Singular, as to grammatic Form, may take a Verb Plural; as, **THE ASSEMBLY of the Wicked HAVE ENCLOSED me**. Old Testament. Or it may take a Verb Singular; as, **THE MULTITUDE of the City WAS DIVIDED**. New Test. And if several Nominative Cases Singular are joined by the Conjunction *and*, the Definitive Verb, which depends upon them, must be Plural; as, **JOHN AND JAMES N— MAKE AND SELL such and such Things**; not *make and sells*.

Such Expressions as **SAND, and SALT, and A MASS of Iron**, is easier to bear than a Man without Understanding are not to be imitated, though found in our Translation of the Scriptures.

2 A Verb infinitive, or Train of Words,
Sometimes what answers to this Case affords.

Thus, in the Expression *to have Respect to Persons is not good*: *To have Respect to Persons* is in Effect the Nominative Case to the Verb *is*.

It will appear at Rule XXVI. that a whole Sentence, with *that* before it, may supply the Place of a Substantive in any Case: It frequently supplies the Place of a Nominative; but then the Particle *it* usually goes before the Verb, and the Sentence with *that* is placed behind the Verb; as, *it came to pass THAT JONATHAN THE SON OF SAUL SAID TO THE young Man, &c.* where *Jonathan Son of Saul said to the young Man* expresses *that which came to pass*, and is therefore a Kind of Nominative Case to the Verb.

The Rule of the second Concord.

- VIII. 1. Our Adjectives unvaried in their End,
By Gender, Number, Case, on Substantives attend.
2. Before their Substantives our Speech applies
Those Adjectives which nothing modifies:
Adverbs excepted; but removes behind,
When other Words dependent are subjoin'd.

This Concord, so far as it concerns the English Language, might have been placed amongst the Rules which were first given concerning the Order of Position of Words: For as our Adjectives have no grammatical Variation of Gender, Number, or Case, they must be placed near the Substantives to which they belong; otherwise, when several Adjectives and several Substantives are in a Sentence, it would not appear which are to be immediately united.

If the Adjective is simple ; i. e. if it be modified by no Word in immediate Dependence upon it ; we usually place it immediately before the Substantive, and if an Article is required, it is placed immediately before the Adjective ; as, *good man*, *a good man*, *the good man*.

If an Adverb is used, it stands immediately before the Adjective, and the Article before it, as, *a very good man*, *the very good man*.

If one or more Words modify an Adjective, it follows its Substantive immediately, and the dependent Words follow it ; as, *a man good to all men*.

But these Rules admit of Exceptions : For simple Adjectives follow their Substantives, if these Substantives depend on Verbs, and the Adjectives express Circumstances attending the verbal States ; as, *to find*, or *leave*, or *make*, *a Company CHEARFUL* ; *this makes my Friend MELANCHOLY*.

And Adjectives, with Adverbs, are placed almost frequently behind their Substantives as before them ; as, *A Man EXCESSIVELY PASSIONATE*, or *an EXCESSIVELY PASSIONATE Man*.

And the Article is placed behind *all*, *such*, *many*, & frequently behind an Adjective that depends on *as*, *or how* ; as, *ALL the Company stayed*; *SUCH a Man is he*; *MANY a Man*; *MANY a Time*; *AS GREAT a Man as Caesar was*; *not so wise a Man as Solomon*; *HOW GRACIOUS a Prince was Augustus* ?

The Rule of the third Concord.

IX. 1. Pronouns to Antecedents must refer, Their Gender, Number, and their Person be

2. With Substantives we place the Possessives
Unchang'd by Gender, Number, or by Case.

All the English Pronouns, even the Possessives, take their Gender, Number, and Person from their Antecedents, and have no grammatical Terminations to suit with the grammatical Gender, Number, and Case of the Substantives on which they depend. Thus a Man says *my Wife*, and a Woman, *my Husband*, without any regard to the Difference of Gender in *Wife* and *Husband*; and so of, *to, from* *my Wife*, without any Difference of Termination in *my*. And so we say, *her Son, his Daughters*, without any Variation in *her* and *bis*, on Account of the Gender or Number of *Son* and *Daughters*; and so of other Instances.

The Demonstrative Pronouns, *this, these; that, those*; and the Distributives, *every, each, either*, are sometimes considered as Adjectives; and if so considered, *this* and *that* are of the singular Number, and *these* and *those* of the plural; and *each* and *either* must be considered as only of the singular Number; for, like *this* and *that*, they can only be united with Substantives of the singular Number. But it is more easy to consider these Words as Pronouns, and the Substantives with which they are often connected as Antecedents, for they follow the Rule of the third Concord. *Each* is applied to singular Names, in order to shew that the whole of some Aggregate is to be taken one by one; as *each Man of the Company*. *Either* is applied when there are two Objects, and the one or the other will equally serve some Purpose, but only one is to be taken; as *either of the Books is sufficient*. *Every* is used either with Singulars or with Plurals, denoting collective Quantities taken, first one,

and then another, till all are taken; as *every Year of my Life*; i. e. all the Years of my Life, taken one by one. *Every two Companies*; *every ten Years*; i. e. the whole Number of Companies taken by two and two; the whole Number of Years taken by ten and ten.

It sometimes happens that a plural Object is expressed by several Names of different Persons united by the Conjunction *and*; as, *I, you, and he*: And it may be necessary to denote this Object over again by a personal Pronoun, or to refer to it by a possessive Pronoun. When this Instance occurs, the same Pronoun cannot take Notice of all the Persons, and the first Person is preferred before the second or third, and the second before the third; as, *I AND YOU are now together, but WE must part*; *I, AND YOU, AND HE were to have met, but WE could not do it conveniently*; *YOU AND SHE were ordered to attend, but YOU did not observe YOUR Directions*; *I, AND YOU, AND HE should be Friends, for it is OUR Duty and OUR Interest to be so*.

X. To Things we which apply, to Persons who, While THAT may either Things or Persons show.

Who may denote any Object that is considered as rational, or capable of speaking, or of being spoken to: And Objects thus considered are here meant by the Name *Persons*.

Which may denote any Object not considered as capable of speaking or being spoken to. Objects thus considered are here called *Things*.

That may denote either Persons or Things.

The English Relatives have no plural Forms.

Hence

Hence we equally say, the *Man who says so*, and the
Men who say so; the *Sum which will be due*, and the
whole Sums which will be due; the *Horse that you sold*, or
the Horses that you sold. This makes the Construction
of the Relative more easy in English than in the Greek
or Latin.

Of the Case of the Relative.

XI. The Relatives are in the Nom'native,
Number and Person when to Verbs they give.
Which Characters, when other Words confer,
The Relatives dependent Cases bear,
Such as the Verbs require, or other Words
Which to the Relative its Clause affords.
But, whatsoe'er their Case, by settled Use
The Relatives their Clauses introduce.

If the Relative determines the Number and Person of
the Definitive Verb in its Clause, it is of the Nominative
or Vocative Case; as *I who write*; *O thou who wri-*
te. But the Vocative has here the Effect of a Nomi-
native of the second Person, and therefore I have con-
sidered it in the Rule as a Kind of Nominative.

If there is some other Word in the Clause which de-
termines the Number and Person of the Definitive Verb,
the Relative is either of such Case as the Verb requires
an immediate Dependence upon it, or of such Case as
some other Word in the Clause requires.

Take the following Sentences and turn them into Re-
lative Clauses referred to the Antecedent *such a Man*,
and the Reason of the Rule will appear

Sentences.

Sentences. Such a Man has been here.—John is the Son of such a Man—John has spoke to such a Man—John has seen such a Man—John has been with such a Man. The Expressions will now become, such a Man—who has been here—of whom John is the Son—To whom John has spoke—whom John has seen—with whom John has been. And here it is evident that who, whom, to whom, whom, with whom, are of the same Cases that such a man is of in the several Sentences before they are turned into Relative Clauses; and that the Relative governs, or is governed by, the same Word in its Clause that such a Man governs or is governed by in each Sentence. Only the Relative removes out of the Place which such a Man had in the Sentence, except in the first Instance where it governs the Verb *has been*. This Removal is made that the Relative may be placed at the Beginning of its Clause; and is so placed to give immediate Notice that the Clause is an Expression of imperfect Sense, although it has the Form of a compleat Sentence.

The adjusting of the Case of the Relative is difficult to Children in all Languages; but it may be made much easier to their Apprehension by turning Sentences into relative Clauses, in the Manner shewn above.

XII. If *that* us'd as a Relative depends

Upon a Preposition, it attends

Somewhere behind the Verb: But *which* and

who

Of Prepositions plac'd before allow.

Yet even when these are us'd, the following

Of Words the Prepositions may contain.

that, when us'd as a Relative, does not admit of any Sign or Preposition immediately before it; but if a reposition is required, it is left where the Name that is represented by the Relative should have stood in the Sentence that is turned into a dependent Clause: Thus, if the Sentences *I spoke of, to, with John* are turned into relative Clauses by *that*, and referred to the Antecedent *John*, the Expressions will be, *John that I spoke of; that I spoke to; that I spoke with*: Not *John of that I spoke; to that, or with that I spoke*: But if *whom* is used to represent *John*, the Expressions may either be *John of whom I spoke, or whom I spoke of; to whom I spoke, or whom I spoke to; with whom I spoke, or whom I spoke with*: And *which* may be used in the same Variety of Construction; as, *the thing of which I spoke, or which I spoke of*.

Observe, that *as*, when redditive to *as, such, or so,* frequently supplies the Place of a Relative; as, *such Precepts as tend to make Men good, may be divided into such as enjoin Piety towards God, and such as require the good Government of ourselves.* Tillotson.

He has done as well as could be expected.

He has not done so well as was expected.

For here it is manifest, that *as* is a Kind of Nominal Case to the Verbs *enjoin, require, could be expected, was expected*; and that *such Precepts as tend, and Precepts of those Kinds which tend*, are equivalent Expressions, as likewise *as well as could be expected; and well a Degree, equal to any Degree which could be expected;* and so of other Instances.

R E G I M E N.

Of the Construction of Substantives in dependent Cases.

Of the Genitive Case in Dependence on Substantives and Adjectives.

XIII. The Genitives are in Dependence seen
On Nouns when Correlations intervene

By a *Correlation* is here meant a Relation in which either of the Terms supposes the other Term. This Kind of Relation is between the same Tense Active and Passive of every transitive Verb ; as, between *to see*, *to be seen*; *hearing*, *heard*, &c. For either State of these Pairs supposes the other of the same Pair.

It is clear that the Sign *of*, between two Substantives is the Mark of such Correlation : For in the Expression *the seeing of a Sight*, *the giving of a Gift*, the Sight is in the State *seen*, and the Gift is in the State *given* : And in the *Content of a Measure*, *the Pain of suffering*, the Content is in the State *contained*, and *Pain in the State suffered*; and so of other Instances.

One and the same Object, if expressed in two Capacities, may have two of its Names connected by *of*, as, in the Expressions *a Praiser*, *Server*, *Injurer of himself*: For here *a Praiser*, &c. and *himself*, denote the same Object : But as the Active State of a transitive Verb is commonly in one Object, and the corresponding Passive State in another, so the Connection denoted by *of*, between two Substantives, is much the most frequently between two different Objects : And hence the following Rule appears in Grammar, *viz.* “ When two Substantives, signifying different Things, come together,

her, the dependent Substantive is in the Genitive Case, and this Rule admits but of few Exceptions, for the Reason given above.

Observe, 1. The Pronouns personal seldom depend on Substantives by the Sign of ; but the Pronouns possessive are used : Thus, we do not say *the Estate, Trade, Situation of me, of thee, of him, of us, of you, of them* ; but *my, thy, his, our, your, their Estate, Trade, Situation, &c.*

2. The Adjective Names of Nations, Cities, and Virtues are frequently used instead of the Genitive Case of their corresponding Substantives : Thus, we equally say *the English Fleet, and the Fleet of England; the Roman Emperors, and the Emperors of Rome*; and so *Spanish Gold, Swedish Iron, Irish Beef, &c.* We likewise say *a wise, worthy, virtuous Man*; or *a Man of Wisdom, of Worth, of Virtue*: But we do not say *a Man of Folly, of Vice, of Covetousness, but a foolish, vicious, covetous Man*.

3. The Genitive Case by 's sometimes affects the Whole of what is denoted by several Words ; as, *the King of Great-Britain's Revenue, for the Revenue of the King of Great-Britain*.

When a Substantive is made to depend on an Adjective it is placed behind the Adjective ; therefore Adjectives do not take the Genitive by 's in Dependence on them, but the Form by of ; as, *fond of Power, capable of Instruction, &c.*

Of Substantives in Dependence on Verbs by the Sign

- XIV. 1. On Verbs depending *of* to Objects leads
 From *out of which* the verbal State proceeds
 2. Or to the Objects of our Words or Thought
 3. Or those whence Things are borrow'd
 begg'd, won, bought;
 4. Or to the Things by Deprivation gain'd
 From others, or by Force or Fraud obtain'd

Substantives, when placed in Dependence on *Verbs* by the Sign *of*, express different Sorts of Connection, of which the following are the principal.

1. After Verbs of *making, framing, forming, compounding, &c.* of directs to the Name of the Material *out of which* something is *made, framed, &c.* as, *God formed Man OF THE DUST of the Ground.* Old Test.

He shall eat nothing that is made OF THE VINE TREE.
 Old Test.

And after Verbs of *lineal Descent*, the Name of the Stock or Lineage whence, or *out of which*, the Descent is derived, is used with the Sign *of*; as, *Man that is born OF A WOMAN.* Liturgy.

OF PRIAM'S ROYAL RACE my Mother came. Dryden

2. After Verbs which denote the Exertion of the intellectual Faculties, *or* directs to the Name of the Subject on which these Faculties are employed; as, *to speak plainly OF THIS WHOLE WORK.* Spectat. No. 65.

He is resolved to judge OF THEM freely. Locke.

And after Verbs of *accusing, acquitting, convincing, admonishing, &c.* *or* directs the Name of the Crime Fault, Error, &c. that is the Subject of the Accusation &c. 23,

Not accused OF RIOT. New Test.

To con-vince Men OF IGNORANCE. Raleigh.

A Man convicted of TREASON, MURDER, &c.

He OF THEIR WICKED WAYS

Shall them admonish. Milton.

I have acquitted myself OF THE DEBT. Dryden.

3. After Verbs of requiring, receiving, buying, borrowing, begging, or any Kind of getting that is not compulsive or fraudulent, OR directs to the Name of the Person or other Object whence the Acquisition is made; as,

They required OF US a Song. Old Test.

The same shall be receive OF THE LORD. New Test.

The Sepulchre which Abraham bought OF THE SONS of Emmor. Old Test.

They borrowed OF THE EGYPTIANS Jewels of Silver.
Old Test.

To ask Alms OF THEM that entered the Temple. N. Test.

4. After Verbs of depriving, preventing, robbing, beating, or any Kind of getting that is compulsive or fraudulent, OR directs to the Name of that which is lost by such Proceeding; as,

Why should I be deprived OF YOU BOTH? Old Test.

The Janissaries disappointed OF THE SPOIL. Knolles.

A Bear robbed OF HER WHELPs. Old Test.

She tricks us OF OUR MONEY. Gay

The following are particular Expressions.

To be sick of a Distemper; *to die OF A WOUND;* *to sur-
feit OF PLAY;* *to be tired OF THE VANITIES of the World;*
to make sure OF THE BEAR. L'Estrange.

To cry out OF UNEQUAL MANAGEMENT. Atterbury
i.e. against unequal Management.

Of the Dative Case.

XV. *The Limits whither States or Objects tend In Names of Dative Forms on Nouns and Verbs attend.*

States of Approach, either *local*, or of the *Attention*, or of *Direction*, whether expressed by Nouns or Verbs, are referred by the Sign *to* to the Name of the Object which limits the Approach; or of that with which the Attention closes; or of that whither the Direction tends; as,

We might go together TO THE ABBEY. Spect. No. 329.
Application to PUBLIC AFFAIRS. Addison.

The Laws of our Religion tend TO THE UNIVERSAL HAPPINESS of Mankind. Tillotson.

States of *adding*, *giving*, *inclining*, *applying*, *appropriating*, &c. are manifestly included in the former States and therefore admit of like Construction; as, *Addition* or, *to add TO A STORE*; *Application*, *applicable*; *to apply TO SUCH A STUDY*, &c.

The Substantives *Advantage*, *Disadvantage*, *Benefit*, *Profit*, *Loss*, *Harm*, &c. may take either a Genitive or Dative Case after them; as, *an Advantage*, *a Disadvantage*, *Benefit*, &c. or *or to such a Man*: But the Adjectives *advantageous*, *disadvantageous*, *beneficial*, *profitable*, &c. admit of a Dative Case only; as, *advantageous* *hurtful*, &c. *to such a Man*.

Such Expressions as *Hand to Hand*, *Face to Face*, *Foot to Foot*, are of the Nature of Adverbs, and are of elliptical Construction: For the Meaning is, *Hand opposite*

Hand, &c. So two, ten, &c. to one, mean that two, ten, &c. are opposed to one, either in a Wager or Contest.

Observe, The Names of *Limits* whither you'll perceive
Us'd with some Verbs as in th'Accusative ;
Such as *to give, procure, get, fetch, leave,*
send,

To borrow, carry, do, make, raise, keep, lend,
To tell, appoint, advance, provide, sell, bring,
To teach, cost, cut, deliver, answer, sing.

These Verbs in active Forms seem to retain
Double Accusatives in their dependent Train.
And in their Passive Forms they may receive
A Noun, which bears the Form of an Accu-
sative.

When the Verbs abovementioned, and several others,
are used in such a Manner that something *accrues*, or
acquired by some Object in Consequence of the verbal
act, the Name of this Object is frequently placed af-
ter the Verb, without the Sign *to* or *for* ; as, *give me the*
Damsel. Old Test. *Procure me a Lodging.* New Test.

Give the Damsel *TO* me ; procure a Lodging *FOR* me :
and so to sing the Company a Song ; to tell a Man a Story ;
advance him a Sum of Money, &c. in which the Com-
pany, a Man, him, are, in Effect, of the Dative Case,
though without *to* or *for*.

And several of these Verbs, in their Passive Forms,
take a dependent Pronoun or Substantive which bears
the Form of an Accusative, but supplies the Place of a
Dative Case ; as, *this was told me, sent him, given us,*
sold them, instead of told to me, sent to me, given to us, sold
them, &c.

It is to be observed, in this Kind of Construction, that the Noun or Pronoun which answers to a Dative Case must stand immediately after the Verb; and if the Accusative is likewise used it must follow the other; as, *to send him a Letter*, not *a Letter him*: But we say, *send a Letter to him*; and so of other Instances.

Of the Accusative Case.

XVII.

XVI. i. The Active Verbs their passive States transferred

- On Nouns which in th'Accusative appear
- 2. To Prepositions, not themselves the Signs
Of Cases, Use th'Accusative subjoins.

As there is no grammatic Form of an Accusative different from the Nominative in English Substantives the Effect of such grammatic Form is produced by means of the Position of the Substantive after the Verb, when active and transitive, as appears at Rule IV. But the eight Pronouns, *me, thee, him, her, us, you, them, whom*, are grammatic Accusative Forms of the Pronouns *I, thou, he, she, we, ye, they, and who*, as appears in the Declension of those Pronouns: And all the Prepositions require these Forms in Dependence upon them; as, *before, behind, between me and him*; not *he and I*, and so of other Instances.

Whom is always placed before the Verb on which it depends; as, *the Man whom you befriend*: It frequently happens that *which* and the Relative *that* are, in Effect, of the Accusative Case; yet, when so, they always stand before the Verb on which they depend; as, in *the Book which I see, or, that I see, for which and that denote the Object seen*; as therefore Position cannot be used in this

is Instance, to ascertain the Accusative Case of these relatives, it would contribute to the Precision of the English Language if they had an Accusative Form different from the Nominative, as the other Relative *who* .
as.

Of the Vocative Case.

XVII. Objects to which our Language we address,
If nam'd, we by the Vocative express.

The demonstrative Circumstance of the Name of an Object being mentioned in Words addressed to that Object, makes the Name become of this Case. Every Object addressed may be called *thou*, if Singular, and *ye* or *you*, Plural, or considered as Plural: Therefore, these Pronouns are really of the Vocative Case, as has been observed already, and the Pronoun of the second Person has no Nominative in Strictness of Speech.

A Substantive, in the Vocative Case, is in Truth no more than a Name of the second Person, which may suite by Apposition with another Name of the same Declension in any Case, if that Name be of the second Person; as, *of thee O Lord, to thee O Lord*. See Rule XXIV.

In solemn Addresses *O* is prefixed as the Sign of this Case; as, *O Lord our God!* but in common Language, it is usually omitted; as, *Boy, come hither*; or, *you Boy, come hither*.

If the Name of the Object addressed is mentioned merely to give Notice of the Person to whom the Address is made, this Name appears like an Interjection; as, *my Heart is fixed, O God! my Heart is fixed; I will sing and give Praise.* Old Test.

Hence

Hence it appears, that the Name in this Case, besides denoting the Object, contains a Declaration or Assertion that the Object is that to which the Speaker addresses his present Discourse.

If the Vocative Case is united in a Sentence, as a constituent Part thereof, the Pronoun of the second Person is used together with it; as, *thou, O Lord, art a God full of Compassion.* Old Test. This is done to determine exactly who is meant by the Pronoun, when the Object addressed is not actually present, so as to be determined by Sight, or some other demonstrative Circumstance.

Of the Ablative Case.

From, by, with, in, for, may be considered as Signs of the Ablative Case, and than on some Occasions.

XVIII. The Ablatives by *from* as Names we use Of Limits whence the Mind a State pursued.

This Sign is the reverse of *to*, and therefore States Receding, whether expressed by Nouns or Verbs, are referred by it to the Name of the Limit whence the Process is estimated; as, *it came to pass, as they journeyed from the East.* Old Test.

Hence such States as *Freedom, Deliverance, Exemption, Abstinence, Restraint, &c.* whether expressed by Nouns or Verbs, admit of *from* before the Name of the Object whence they are conceived to remove or withdraw; as, *freedom, free, to free FROM Danger.*

Deliver us FROM Evil. New Test.

Abstain FROM all Appearance of Evil. New Test.
And now, nothing will be restrained FROM thee.
Old Test.

It is manifest, that every State which can be conceived as forsaking one Object and approaching another, may be referred to the Object forsaken by from, and to the Object approached by to; as, a Journey FROM such a Place TO such a Place; a Continuance, or to continue FROM such a Time TO such a Time, &c.

By an elliptical Construction this Sign is placed before several Adverbs and Prepositions; as, from above, from below, from afar; i. e. from some Place above, below, far distant, &c.

XIX. 1. After Verbs Passive, Ablatives in *by*

The correspondent Active States supply.

2. And *by* is likewise us'd with Names that shew The Means made Use of, or the Method how.
3. But *by* to Place referring will appear To signify adjoining to, or near.

1. This Sign, after the Passive Form of a transitive Verb, directs to the Name of the Object which is in the corresponding Active State: Thus, in James heard, seen, injured BY William, by the Multitude, by himself; William, the Multitude, or James himself, is the Object bearing, seeing, injuring; and so of other Instances.

By is likewise used to refer to Names expressing the Means, Order, Course, or Method by which Events are effected or regulated; as,

By THIS MEANS they would arrive at proper Notions of Excellence. Spectat. No. 337.

This would conduce to the public Emolument BY MAKING every Man living good for something. Spectat. No. 43.

The Prince conveys himself BY A BEAUTIFUL STRATA-GEM into his Mother's Apartment. Spectat. No. 44.

They consulted that they might take Jesus BY SUBTILITY. New Test.

Thou shalt drink Water BY MEASURE. Old Test.

The same Substantive is frequently twice repeated for the Purpose above-mentioned, and *by* placed between the Substantives ; as, *to examine a Book PAGE BY PAGE, LINE BY LINE ; to search a Place HOUSE BY HOUSE ; to do so YEAR BY YEAR* : These are a Kind of adverbial Expressions of Order.

3. When *by* refers to Place, it signifies *near* ; as, *Ye shall encamp BY THE SEA.* Old Test.

A savage Man standing BY A BELL. Spectat. No. 28.

When *by* refers to a Period or Portion of Time, it signifies that, as soon as the Time is come, something will also come to pass ; as, *To-morrow, BY THE TIME THE SUN BE UP, ye shall have Help.* Old Test.

In Adjuration or Cursing, *by* refers to the Name of the God or other Object on which the Effect of the Adjuration or Curse depends ; as,

I adjure thee BY THE LIVING GOD. New Test.

The Philistine cursed David BY HIS GODS. Old Test.

XX. Of Ablatives by *with*, 'tis the Intent Concomitants or Adjuncts to present.

With, in its most general Sense, refers to the Name of an Object which is considered ; as, *accompanying* ; as, *a Man WITH HIS FAMILY.*

States which require an Instrument to be used, are referred by *with* to the Name of the Instrument ; as, *a Performance WITH A PEN, GRAVER, CHIZZEL, &c. to write WITH A PEN, GRAVER ; to work WITH A CHIZZEL ; if he smite WITH AN INSTRUMENT of Iron.* Old T.

Several Verbs Neuter take *by* in this Reference ; as, *they fell BY THE SWORD ; he perished BY A DART.*

2. The Name of any Object, considered as an *Adjunct*, may take *with* before it ; as,

If they had seen me WITH THESE HANGMAN'S HANDS.
Shakespear.

Rebeckah came forth WITH HER PITCHER on her Shoulder. Old Test. i. e. having these Hangman's Hands ; having her Pitcher on her Shoulder.

The Names of any Qualities or Circumstances, if considered as *Adjuncts* or *Concomitants*, may take *with* before them ; as, *to go WITH SPEED* ; *to advance WITH RESOLUTION* ; *to strive WITH EAGERNESS* ; i. e. *to go speedily* ; *to advance resolutely* ; *to strive eagerly*.

All States of Intercourse or Community admit of the Reference by *with* to the Name of any Object that is equally concerned with others in these States ; as, *a League, Truce, Treaty, Engagement WITH THE ENEMY* ; *Conversation, Trade, Dealings with such People* ; *a Division, Composition, Agreement, Disagreement WITH HIS CREDITORS* ; and so *to vie WITH THE BEST OF THEIR FAMILY*. Addison. Whether they quarrelled among themselves, OR WITH their Neighbours. Spectat. No. 70.

*Where the sapient King
Held Alliance WITH HIS FAIR EGYPTIAN SPOUSE.*

Milton.

Thou hast been Partaker WITH THE ADULTERERS.
Old Test.

He shall divide the Spoil WITH THE STRONG. ibid.

The States of being pleased, satisfied, contented, displeased, dissatisfied, discontented, wearied, refreshed, beset, loaded, charged, and several others, take the Reference by *with* to the Name of the Object that occasions the Pleasure, Displeasure, &c. or that constitutes the Load, Charge, &c. as,

I was delighted WITH THE APPEARANCE of the God object which
Wit. Spectat. No. 64. *Man IN L*

With likewise refers to the Name of the Object upon An Obj
or amongst which Interest, Credit, or Authority is exer-
cised or retained; as, *to have Credit, Influence, &c. WITH* aining by
such a Man.

But Interest is her Name WITH MEN below. Dryden. Any R
ween a 1
may be e
i. e. amongst Men below.

Sometimes *with* gives Notice, that as soon as one Pence IN
Thing came to pass another also ensued; as, 2. An
WITH THIS he pointed to his Face. Dryden. re exert
uch Skil
ciences;

- XXI. 1. *Containing Objects in Dependence seen*
On Nouns or Verbs claim Ablatives by *in*.
2. Likewise the Objects of our Care or Pains;
3. Or those by which its Views the Mind re-
strains.

1. *In* directs to the Name of any Place, or Part of Time, which is conceived to comprehend other Objects or States; as, *a Man in a House; a Horse IN THE Field; this was IN SUCH A YEAR, IN THE REIGN of such a King, &c.* But we say *on such a Day, and at such a Time. There were IN THE SAME COUNTRY Shepherds abiding IN THE FIELD.* New Test.

It came to pass IN THOSE DAYS. Ibid.

When the Wife of Hector, IN HOMER'S ILIADS, discourses with her Husband about the Battle IN WHICH he was going to engage. Addison.

He sees it IN QUITE ANOTHER LIGHT. Spect. No. 75.

The Names of all Sorts of States which continue for a Time, may be united by *in*, with the Name of any Object

Object which is under the Influence of those States ; as, *a Man in Love, Hope, Fear; in Arms; in a Conspiracy, &c.*

An Object contained may be referred to the Object containing by *of*, or by *in*; as, *a Chapter OF or IN such a Book; the Parts OF or IN such a Whole.*

Any Rate or Proportion, which is conceived to be between a less Quantity and a greater *that contains the less*, may be expressed by *in*; as, *Ten IN the Hundred; Twelve Pence IN the Pound, &c.*

2. Any Object or Materials, on which Skill or Pains are exerted, may be considered as containing the Effect of such Skill or Pains : Hence the Expressions *Skill IN the Sciences; to take Pains IN learning this or that.*

Lord Clifford vows to fight IN thy Defence. Shakesp.

Solemn Forms of Denunciation take *in* before the Name of the Object on which the Effect of the Denunciation is conceived to depend ; as, *IN the Name of God let this be done.*

— *In the Power of us the Tribunes,
We banish him.* Shakespear.

3. The Name of whatsoever restrains the Extent of that which is under Consideration may take *in* before it ; *as, IN all Probability; IN Reason; IN Justice; i. e. considering Things so far as Probability, Reason, Justice allows, and no farther.*

XXII. 1. In Ablatives by *for* we Names descry
That shew the Reason, Cause, Account, or Purpose why.

2. And

2. And for, with Names of Time, conveys Thought

Quite through the Periods which these Names denote.

1. *For* refers to the Name of the final Cause, or the Name of any Thing on Account of which Things appear, or are considered, done, or treated, rather in one Manner than another; as, *to write FOR BREAD*; *convenient, inconvenient FOR SUCH A PURPOSE*, *FOR SUCH A SEASON*, *FOR SUCH A MAN*, &c.

He dies FOR A DESERTER. Gay.

To think the worse of ourselves FOR THE IMPERFECTIONS OF OUR PERSONS. Spectat. No. 33.

There is nothing so bad FOR THE FACE as Party-Zeal. Spectat. No. 57.

A good Figure FOR A LAMPOON. Ibid. No. 58.

That on Account of which we exert our Powers and Faculties, is frequently that others may be excused from doing what we do. *For* is used in this Reference, and when so, it is equivalent to *instead of*, or *in the Place of*, *on the Behalf of*; as, *a Substitute FOR ANOTHER*; *to appear, plead, serve, contrive, &c.* *FOR SUCH A MAN.*

In buying, selling, making Wagers, &c. *for* refers to the Name of whatsoever is received, paid, or hazarded; for that is the Thing on Account of which the Bargain or Wager is made; as, *to sell, buy such Goods FOR such a Sum*; *to pay such a Sum FOR SUCH GOODS*; *to take Cash in exchange FOR WINE*; *a Wager FOR SUCH A SUM.*

— A paltry Ring, whose Poesy was

FOR ALL THE WORLD like Cutler's Poetry—Shakespear, &c. e. as like as if the World had been at Stake on the Exactness of the Likeness.

The Name of whatsoever is considered as *that towards* which any Disposition, Preparation, or Intention is directed, admits of *for* before it; as, *Aristotle is FOR POETIC JUSTICE*; *Jove was FOR VENUS*; *he is all FOR SUCH A THING*. Dryden. i. e. disposed in Judgment,avour, or Inclination towards poetic Justice, &c.

We sailed FOR GENOA. Addison. i. e. with Intention arrive at Genoa.

The Words *fit*, *right*, *proper*, or others of like Import, are often understood; and *for* refers to a Name which depends on what is understood; as,

— *It were FOR ME*

To throw my Sceptre at the injurious Gods. Shakespear.
e. fit, proper for me.

2. With Names of Parts, or Periods of Time, *for* Notice that some State continues quite through Period; as, *hired FOR LIFE*. Prior.

To guide the Sun's bright Chariot FOR A DAY. Garth's

I never knew a Party-Woman that kept her Beauty FOR TWELVEMONTH. Spectat. No. 57.

XXIII. *Than* is a Sign by which the Mind refers To that wherewith it any Thing compares.

When the Result of a Comparison is expressed by *an Adjective or Adverb of the comparative Degree*, *THAN* refers to the Name or Expression which denotes that by which some Excess or Defect is estimated; as, *a Man, wiser, richer, less wise, less rich THAN ANOTHER, OR THAN HAS BEEN*; *a Thing done more or less prudently THAN WAS*

WAS EXPECTED, &c. and so, *thou art fairer THAN CHILDREN OF MEN.* Old Test.

I have no greater Joy THAN TO HEAR THAT MY CHILDREN walk in the Truth. New Test.

Than frequently connects two full Sentences ; as, *thou art wiser THAN I am* ; and it frequently happens that the verbal State concerned in the last Sentence is easily supplied or understood of Course. When this Instance occurs, there is no absolute Necessity to mention the second Verb ; as, in *thou art wiser than I*. In Expressions of this Kind, in Latin, the Substantive, which in English depends on *than*, is usually put in the Ablative Case ; as, *ME sapientior es*, which, if *than* be considered as the Sign of an oblique Case, may be translated *thou art wiser THAN ME*. The best English Writers have considered *than* as such a Sign ; as,

She suffers more THAN ME. Swift. i. e. more than suffer.

*Thou art a Girl as much brighter THAN HER,
As he was a Poet sublimer THAN ME.* Prior.

i. e. Thou art a Girl as much brighter than *she was*, he was a Poet sublimer than *I am*.

If these Expressions are turned into relative Clauses referred to the Antecedents *I* and *she*, the Expressions will become *I, THAN WHOM, she suffers more*; *I, THAN WHOM, thou art a Girl as much brighter*, &c. As *whom* is evidently an oblique Case, and *than* is the Sign of it ; so that like *before*, *after*, and several other Particles, *than* is sometimes the Sign of an oblique Case, or a Preposition, and sometimes a Conjunction. Thus, *who were in Christ BEFORE me.* New Test. equivalent to, *who were in Christ BEFORE I WAS* ; and

name an Hour AFTER THEM, is equivalent to, *I came an Hour after THEY CAME*; and it is manifest, that in the first of each of the Expressions, before and after are Prepositions, but in the latter of each they are equivalent to Conjunctions.

Of the Construction of Substantives in like Cases.

- XXIV. 1. Names, to intitle or describe, design'd,
Conceptions rais'd already in the Mind,
By other Names, must the same Cases
bear
In which the Names that first are us'd ap-
pear.
2. Sometimes no Verb, like Cases, comes be-
tween ;
But the Verb Substantive may intervene :
3. Likewise such passive Verbs as *nam'd*,
esteem'd,
Accounted, made, intitled, call'd, or deem'd.

1. When several Names, each of which denotes one and the same Object, are used together, in order to describe or intitle the Object more fully, these Names are of the same Case ; as, *the Lord Jehovah, Moses THE SERVANT of the Lord*: Here the Names are of the Nominative, viz. *the Lord and Jehovah, Moses and the Servant*; and if the Expressions had been *of, to, with the* &c. *Lord Jehovah*, both *the Lord and Jehovah* must have been considered as of the Genitive, or Dative, or Ablative Case. In the following Instance both the Names of the same Object are in the Accusative Case ; *to possess greater and mightier than thyself, THE CHILDREN of the Anakims. Old Test.* This Manner of Construction is called APPPOSITION in Grammar.

2. The Forms of the Verb *to be* may connect any two Names of the same Object in the same Case; as, *TRUTH was THE FOUNDER of the Family.* Spectat. No. 35.

Menippus knew IT to be THE PRAYER of his Friend Lycaender. Spectat. No. 391. where both *IT* and *the Prayer* are of the Accusative Case: And so, it might be said, *knew THEM who appeared to be HIM and HER.*

The passive Verbs *named, esteemed, accounted, &c.* like *wife* connect two Names of one and the same Object in the same Case; as, *I and my SON SOLOMON shall be accounted OFFENDERS.* Old Test.

I am ONE of those despicable Creatures called A CHAMBERMAID. Spectat. No. 366.

The active Forms of these Verbs admit of two Names of the same Object in the Accusative Case; as, *to name a CHILD JOHN.*

The Lord which chose me to appoint ME RULER over his People. Old Test.

Of the Construction of single Words, or Serieses of Words so as to have the Effect of one Substantive in some Case, although without any Sign or Preposition.

XXV. Th'Infinitive, and what on it depends,
Oft as a Name, on Nouns and Verbs attend
 1. This Form may Names in any Case supply;
 2. But chiefly shews the Cause or Purpose why.
 3. And with the Verb *to be* it ascertains
Appointed States, or those which any Rule commands.

The Verb in the Infinitive Mood, either without with other Words depending upon it, may stand

Sentence, so as to have the Effect of one Substantive
in any Case.

The Nominative. *To BE, or NOT TO BE; that is the Question.* Shakespear.

Genitive. *Fond TO SPREAD FRIENDSHIP.* Pope. For
here to spread Friendship is that of which some one is
fond.

Dative. *Obliged TO FORGET the DAY OF APPOINT-
MENT.* Spectat. No. 466.

For here to forget, &c. denotes that to which some
person is obliged.

Accusative. *I attempt TO BRING INTO THE SERVICE
VIRTUE EVERY THING IN NATURE.* Spectat. No.
66.

For here to bring, &c. denotes that which is attempted.

2. The Ablative of the Cause or Purpose why is perpetually occurring in this Form ; as,

Strive TO ENTER INTO THE STRAIT GATE. New T.
For here to enter, &c. denotes that for which we are
commanded to strive.

The Sign for was formerly set down before Infinitive
Clauses, when used in this Sense ; as, *all their Works
they do FOR to be seen of Men.* New Test. But this Form
is now disused.

3. The Infinitive Mood, in Dependence on the Forms
of the Verb to be, is frequently used to represent some
State as appointed or proposed, or the Consequence of
some Ordinance ; as, *the Tent of Darius IS TO BE PEG-
GED by the ingenious Mrs. Salmon, where Alexander is
TO FALL IN LOVE with a Piece of Wax-Work.* Spectat.
2 Soc. 31.

*If all political Power be derived from Adam, and
TO DESCEND only to his successive Heirs. Locke.*

Of whole Sentences used as Substantives.

XXVI. 1. The Casual *that* whole Sentences may play
As a Noun Substantive in any Case.

2. Or if what should be Nom'native become
Accusative, and to itself assumes
A Verb Infinitive, the Whole will give
What answers to a Noun in the Accusative

1. The casual or sentential Demonstrative *that*, which is prefixed to a Sentence, is a Notice that the Sentence, considered all of it together, is equivalent to one Substantive in some Case: Thus, in *it came to pass at the End of four Days, THAT NOAH OPENED THE WINDOW OF THE ARK* in the Old Test.

Noah opened the Window of the Ark is a full Sentence; but here it denotes *that which came to pass*, and is therefore a Kind of Nominative Case.

And in, *I know THAT MY REDEEMER LIVETH.* Liturgy. *My Redeemer liveth* is a full Sentence; but here it denotes *the Thing known*, and is therefore a Kind of Accusative Case.

And in, *the Account THAT SUCH A SHIP IS ARRIVED* proves to be a Mistake: *Such a Ship is arrived* is a full Sentence; but here it denotes *that, of or concerning which* the Account is, and therefore is equivalent to a Genitive Case, being of the same Import as *the Account OF THE ARRIVAL of such a Ship, &c.* And Instances may be found in almost any Book, in which a Sentence, with *that* prefixed, is equivalent to a Substantive of the Dative or Ablative Case.

2. A
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2. A Substantive in the Accusative Case, with an Infinitive Verb depending on it, frequently supplies the Place of a Sentence depending on *that*, so as to have the Effect of one Substantive in the Accusative Case : Thus, *the King commanded his Son on Foot to lay his Right Hand on the Gentleman's Stirrup*, is equivalent to *the King commanded that his Son on Foot should lay his Right Hand, &c.* and *that his Son, &c.* denotes *that which is commanded*, and is therefore equivalent to an Accusative Case ; and so of many Instances which occur in almost every Discourse.

Of the Construction of Verbs impersonal.

- XXVII. The English Verbs impersonal appear
Plac'd in Dependence, or on *it*, or *there*.
1. Impersonals, if form'd by *there*, receive
The Number of a following Nom'native.
 2. Those form'd by *it*, to Singulars confin'd,
A Sentence often take by *that* subjoin'd ;
Or Verb Infinitive, or any Train
Of Words, which in Effect a Nom'native
contain.

It is not always convenient to mention the Name of the Object to which a Definitive Verb relates, because such Object is sometimes conceived to be known of Course ; and it is often inconvenient to express the Object at large before the Definitive Verb is mentioned. When these Instances occur, *it* or *there* is used in English to give Notice to the Hearer to supply the Nominative Case in his own Mind, or to expect it, or Words equivalent to it, in the following Part of the Sentence : Thus, in the Expressions *it thunders, it rains, freezes, snows, the Air*

Air or the Heaven is to be understood of Course, as that which is *thundering, raining, &c.* at the Time when the Words are spoken ; but in, *it is better to marry than to burn,* New Test. it gives Notice, that *to marry* supplies in Effect, a Nominative to the Verb *is*, although it stands behind the Verb ; for the Expression, *to marry is better than to burn,* is exactly equivalent to the former : And so *it is certain that we were mistaken,* is equivalent to the *we were mistaken is certain ;* and here *that we were mistaken* is a Sentence, and supplies the Place of a Nominative Case to the Verb *is*, whether it stands before the Verb or behind it, whilst it stands before. In like Manner, *there may be found Men in Abundance who will undertake this,* is equivalent to *Men in Abundance may be found who will undertake this :* So that there only gives Notice that *Men,* the Nominative to the Verb, *may be found* stands behind it.

Observe. THERE is used when a Substantive is the Nominative Case, or governing Word, but stands behind the Verb ; as, *wherever there is Sense or Perception* Locke. i. e. wherever Sense or Perception is. *There are tenebrificous or dark Stars. Spectat.* i. e. tenebrificous or dark Stars are.

The Verb, which depends on *there,* is of the same Number with its following Nominative Case ; as, *there is Sense, there are Stars.*

But in the Imperative Forms by *let,* with *there,* the Substantive or Pronoun which governs the dependent Verb is of the Accusative Case ; as, *let there be only HIM and ME in the Room.* i. e. Let only him and me be in the Room.

It is used when an Infinitive Verb without or with Words in Dependence on it, or a Sentence with *that* before it, supplies the Office of a Nominative Case or governing Word to the Definitive Verb, and yet stands behind the Verb ; as, *it is a pleasant Thing to be thankful.*
Old Test. i. e. to be thankful is a pleasant Thing.

It was a good Piece of Advice, which Pythagoras gave to his Scholars, that every Night before they slept, they should examine what they had been doing that Day. Spectat.
No. 586.

For here, *every Night before they slept, they should examine, &c.* denotes *that which was the good Advice,* and therefore, is in Effect a Nominative Case to the Verb *was.*

When a Sentence, with *it* or *there*, depends on *neither nor*, or is used to ask a Question, *it* or *there* stands after the Verb ; as, *neither is IT certain THAT THE SHIP IS ARRIVED, nor is IT known THAT SHE IS LOADEN.* *Is IT certain THAT THE SHIP IS ARRIVED ?*

Neither were THERE any People who said that the Ship was come ; nor was THERE any one who knew where she was ; were THERE any Ships in the Harbour ?

It usually represents a single Object, because such an Object is denoted by the Infinitive Clause, or by the Sentence which follows the principal or definitive Verb. But sometimes this Particle denotes an Object of Enquiry, which, when determined by the Answer, is Plural ;

Who was't came by ?

'Tis two or three, my Lord, that bring you Word MacDuff fled to England. Shakespear.

And sometimes an Object, not of Enquiry, is thus represented ; as,

'Tis these that early taint the Female Soul. Pope.

The

The grammatic Propriety of these Expressions is disputed.

It is frequently used to denote a Subject of Enquiry or one that is to be ascertained by a Relative Clause and which, when ascertained, is of the first or second Person; as, *Lord, is it I?* New Test.

'Twas I that killed her. Shakespear. And it might be said *it was thou that killedst her.*

Sometimes a whole Narration is introduced by it as, *'Twas at the Royal Feast, for Persia, won*

By Philip's warlike Son:

Aloft, in awful State,

The Godlike Hero sat, &c. i. e. It was at the Royal Feast, &c. that the Godlike Hero sat, &c.

Of the Use of particular Tenses of the Verb.

In the Indicative Mood.

XXVIII. 1. The second Pret'reite must with Time be plac'd,

Which, when the Words are spoke, is not completely past.

If the second Preterite is used with a Name of Time applied as an Adverb, that Name must be some Part of Period which is not fully past; as, I HAVE SAID or DONE so TO DAY, THIS WEEK, THIS MONTH, NOW: But we do not say I HAVE SAID or DONE so YESTERDAY, LAST WEEK, MONTH, YEAR, &c. for these are Periods of Time fully past, or compleated at the Time of speaking. The first Preterite may be used with Periods of Time which are either compleated, or not at the Time of speaking; as, I SAID or DID so TO DAY, THIS WEEK,

THIS

THIS MONTH, NOW ; OR, I SAID OR DID *so* YESTERDAY,
LAST WEEK, LAST YEAR, &c.

*Of the Difference between the Future by SHALL, and that
by WILL.*

2. The Verb by *shall*, States of fix'd Order shows ;
Or States which Chance directs, as we suppose.
And *shall* those verbal Future States declares
Which *for itself*, an Object hopes or fears,
Thinks of *itself*, surmises, or foresees ;
But which *for other Objects* it decrees.
3. The Verb by *will*, those Future States declares
For others, which an Object hopes or fears,
Of others thinks, surmises, or foresees ;
But *for itself*, States which itself decrees.

The Future by *shall* is used in sublime Language to express those States which are irrevocably fixed ; as, *they* (i. e. the Heavens and the Earth) *SHALL perish*, *but thou* (O God) *SHALT endure*. Old Test. i. e. it is irre-
vocably fixed that they shall perish, &c. and States which are supposed to depend on Chance are expressed by *shall* ;
as, if it shall happen ; or, *if it shall come to pass that you go*. *Shall* is often omitted in Expressions of this Kind ;
as, if it happen that you go, &c.

In simple declarative Sentences, the Thoughts that are expressed are conceived to be those of the Speaker ; therefore, as *shall* denotes a State which the Speaker, *hopes, fears, or foresees concerning himself*, but which determines concerning others ; the Expressions *I* or *we shall go*, are equivalent to *I* or *we foresee, or imagine that we are to go* : But *you, he, or they shall go*, are equivalent to *I* or *we determine that you, he, they are to go*.

Q

But

But, on the contrary, *will* denotes a State which the Speaker determines concerning himself, but which he hopes, fears, or foresees concerning other Objects: And therefore *I* or *we will go* are equivalent to *I* or *we determine to go*; but *you, he, they will go*, are equivalent to *I* or *we foresee or believe that you propose to go*, or that *your going* is some Way determined.

When Questions are asked, *shall* denotes a State which the Person of whom the Question is asked foresees concerning himself, but determines concerning other Objects; *will*, a State which he determines concerning himself, but foresees concerning others: Therefore *SHALL you go?* is equivalent to *do you expect to go?* but *WILL you go?* to *do you resolve or determine to go?* But *SHALL I be, they go*, are equivalent to *do you determine that I, he, they may go?* or to *do you permit us to go?* And *WILL I be, they go?* to *do you think or believe that I, he, they are determined to go?* or, in such a Situation as that our, his, or their going is likely to take Place.

In Compound Sentences, if a Person is represented as determining his own Future State, *will* is used; but, if the Future State of others, *shall* is used; as, *I resolve determine that I will go; you, that you will, be, that he will go*: But, *I resolve, determine that you, he, they (or any one but myself) shall go; you resolve, determine that I, he, they (or any one but yourself) shall go*? *he resolves determines that I, you, we, they (or any one but himself) shall go*.

In Compound Sentences, if a Person is represented as foreseeing, believing, hoping, fearing his own Future State, *shall* is used; if the Future State of other Objects *will* is used; as, *I foresee, believe, hope, fear that I shall*

which he will, that we shall; thou, that thou shalt; he, that he projects; I shall; you, that you shall; they, that they shall go: But, I or we foresee, believe, hope, fear, that you, he, they (or any one but myself) will go; you foresee, &c. that I, he, they (or any one but yourself) will go; he foresees, &c. that I, you, we, they (or any one but himself) will go.

In Suppositions it is often immaterial whether we use *shall* or *will*, or mention the Verb without any Sign; as, *will meet you if my Business shall permit me*; or, *will permit myself to do it*; or, *if my Business permit me to do it*.

Should and *would* are used with the same Distinctions as *shall* and *will*; as, *I determined that I would*; *that you, they (or any one but myself) should go*.

I foresaw, hoped, feared, believed that I should; *that you, he, they (or any one but myself) would go*, &c.

3. If Suppositions, probable you'd make,
The Present, or the second Preterite take.
For those less probable, if such you chuse,
Or the first Pret'rite, or Pluperfect use.

In Suppositions the Present Tense of the Indicative Mood denotes a State that probably may be as it is represented; as, *if he does this he is to be blamed*, where it is insinuated that he probably *may do this*.

But if the first Preterite is used; as, *if he did this he would be blamed*, it is insinuated that he probably *may never do this*.

The second Preterite, in Suppositions, expresses a state which probably has been as it is represented; as, *if he has done this he is to be blamed*; where it is insinuated that he probably *may have done this*.

But if the Pluperfect is used; as, *if he had done this he would have been blamed*; it is insinuated that he probably

may not have done this ; and so of other Instances of Suppositions.

Of the Construction of Participles.

The English Participles are used either OBJECTIVELY as Substantives, or in COALESCENCE, as Adjectives.

Participles, when used *objectively*, become of the Nature of Substantives, and take a Genitive Case in Dependence on them as Substantives do ; as,

SATAN'S TRAVERSING the Globe. Ad. Spect. No. 35

The Middle Station of Life seems to be the most advantageously situated for THE GAINING OF WISDOM. Addis Spectat. No. 464.

The Definite Article is usually prefixed to a Participle, when the Genitive by *of* is made to depend upon it. This appears in the Example above : But the Article sometimes omitted, and the Sign of likewise ; as, *washing your Hands.* Taylor. For at the washing of your Hands.

If an objective Participle depends on another Word, it may take the Sign of any Case, or any other Proposition before it, to shew the Nature of the Dependence ; as, IN YOUR DRESSING let there be Ejaculations fitted to the several Actions of DRESSING ; as, AT WASHING your Hands pray to God to cleanse, &c. Taylor.

Participles, when used in Coalescence, unite with the Name of some Object, and represent the Object as some occasional State of Being ; as, a Man speaking, ready walking ; a Horse having travelled, &c.

XXIX

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XXII

XXIX. Whate'er dependent Case a Verb may claim,
It's Participles may command the same.

Participles, whether used *objectively* or in *Coalescence*, admit of Substantives in Dependence on them, by the same Modes of Connection as the Verbs do from which the Participles are derived. If therefore the Verb be *transitive*, its active Participles are also *transitive*, and admit of an Accusative Case in immediate Dependence upon them; as, *a Man calling us*; *the Pleasure of seeing HER*; *to be ill requited for teaching THEM*: And Substantives and objective Verbs in Dependence on all the Prepositions, follow a Participle as they follow the Verb from which the Participle is derived; as, *Satan's TRAVERSING THE GLOBE*, and *STILL KEEPING WITHIN THE SHADOW OF THE NIGHT as FEARING TO BE DISCOVERED by the Angel of the Sun*. Addison. Spect. No. 351.

Of Nouns used adverbially.

XXX. The Names of *Parts of Time*, or any Size, By Measure ascertain'd, our Speech applies As Adverbs; yet these Sorts of Names appear Without the usual Forms that Adverbs bear.

The Names of *Parts of Time*, of *Distance*, and of *Quantities ascertained by Measure or Weight*, are usually applied in English, without any prefixed Sign or adverbial Termination; although, when thus applied, they are of the Nature of Adverbs; as, *it has been TIME OUT OF MIND generally remarked*. Spectat. No. 20. i. e. *for or during a Length of Time beyond Memory*.

The Foot and Artillery were FOUR MILES behind. Clarendon. i. e. at the Distance of four Miles. And so, a

Well

*Well TEN FATHOM deep; a Road TEN YARDS broad;
Horseman who rides SO MANY STONE; i. e. whose Weight
when he rides, is equal to so many Stone.*

The Adverb *enough* admits of the Genitive Case ~~of~~ in Dependence upon it; as, *we have enough of this* but it likewise is used in immediate Dependence on Substantives; as, *vain Persons shall have POVERTY ENOUGH*. Old Test. and on Adjectives, as *the Land is LARGE ENOUGH*. Old Test. and on Verbs, as *when they have EATEN ENOUGH*. New Test.

Of Conjunctions as joining Words.

- XXXI. 1. The copulative Conjunctions may connect like Cases, Moods, and Tenses, which respect 2. Some common Word, or may, to suit the Sense, Affect a different Case, or Mood, or Tense. 3. And in the like Construction you'll perceive Both the Disjunctive and the Discretive. 4. And to one Word you'll several Adverbs find; Or Adjectives, by this Construction join'd.

The copulative Conjunctions very frequently connect like Cases, Moods, and Tenses; as,

HOMER and HESIOD intimate to us how this Art should be applied, when they represent the Muses as SURROUNDING the Throne of Jupiter, and WARBLING Hymns about his Throne. Spectat. No. 406.

2. But the Conjunctions may refer different Cases, Moods, or Tenses to some common Word, if the Objects or States to be referred are in different Situations with Regard to what is denoted by the Word; as,

True Happiness is OF A RETIRED NATURE, and AN
NEMY to Pomp and Noise. Spectat. No. 15.

They SUBMIT it to your Censure, and SHALL HAVE you
greater Veneration. Spectat. No. 36.

3. The Disjunctive Conjunctions *either* and *or*, and
the Discretives *but*, *except*, are used in the same Manner ;
the Use Men have of these Marks, being EITHER TO
RECORD their own Thoughts, or TO BRING out their Ideas.

Men STAND not usually to examine, BUT THINK it enough
that they use the Word. Locke.

Observe, that when Expressions are coupled by *as*
and so, if the first Expression be affirmative, it is introdu-
ced by *as*, if negative, by *so* ; thus, *as good a Man as you* ;
not so good a Man as you ; *I can do this AS well AS you* ;
I cannot do this SO well AS you.

4. And several Adjectives or Adverbs frequently de-
pend on the same Noun or Verb by Means of the copu-
tive, disjunctive, or discrete Conjunctions ; as, *a Man*
WISE AND GOOD ; or *WISE, but NOT GOOD*.

To act THOUGHTLESSLY and HASTILY, either
HOUGHTLESSLY or HASTILY, THOUGHTLESSLY, but
NOT HASTILY, &c.

XXXII. Of the Conjunctions and Indefinites which re- uire a Verb in the Subjunctive Mood.

To express uncertain States, *except, left, so,*
Before, ere, till, if, howsoever, though,
Although, unless, with who,—and whatsoe'er,
And whether, the Subjunctive Mood prefer.

The Subjunctive Mood is frequently used with the
Conjunctions and Indefinites mentioned in the Rule ; as,

I will not let thee go EXCEPT thou BLESS me. Old Test. each Pre
Let us sacrifice to the Lord, LEST he FALL upon us with
Pestilence. Ibid. Custom Classem above fo
repositio
ne rest.

I reck not so it LIGHT well aim'd. Milton. i. e. if
be that it light, &c.

— BEFORE so noble and so great a Figure
BE STAMPT. Shakespear.

E'ER this avenging SWORD BEGIN thy Doom. Milton.
Seek out his Wickedness TILL thou FIND none. Old Test.
IF thou LET this Man go. New Test.

HOWEVER it BE. Pope.

— THOUGH Heaven's King
RIDE on thy Wings. Milton.

ALTHOUGH my House BE not so. Old Test.

— UNLESS an Age too late, or cold
Climate, or Years DAMP my intended Wing. Milton.
WHOSOEVER he BE. New Test.

WHATEVER BE our Fate. POPE.

WHETHER it WERE I or they. New Test.

Likewise if the Subject of a Command be a Sentence
depending on *that* expressed or understood, the Verb
must be of the Subjunctive Mood; as,

Beware THAT thou BRING not my Son thither. Old Test.
See thou TELL no Man. New Test. i. e. that thou tell
&c.

Of the Construction of Prepositions.

The grammatic Regimen of the Prepositions in English, or the Case which they govern, is the Accusative, and therefore the Rule for their grammatic Construction is made Part of the 16th Rule concerning the Use of the Accusative Case: But the several Kinds of Connection amongst Objects or verbal States, which are denoted by

each Preposition must be determined from the established Custom of the Language. This can only be shewn by Classes of Examples, as is done in the Rules laid down above for the Signs of the Cases: For these Signs are prepositions, only they are of more constant Use than the rest.

The English Prepositions which are not considered as Signs of Cases, are as follow.

before, before	Through, or thorough, throughout
against	Out of, without
beside, besides	After, behind
near, nigh, by	Beyond
toward, towards	Off
into, into	Above, over
at	On, upon
Within	Below, under, beneath, underneath
between, betwixt	Up
among, amongst	Down
midst	
about, around	

Afore, before.

Names which have these Prepositions before them denote Objects considered; as, *less forward in Place*; or *preceded in Time*; or those to which any Thing is considered as *prior, superior, or preferred*; or those which any Thing is considered as *fronting or facing*; or as in the *presence, Sight, or under the Cognizance of*; as, *who shall BEFORE THEM in a Cloud*. Milton.

Do thy Diligence to come BEFORE WINTER. New Test.

The eldest Son is BEFORE THE YOUNGER in Succession. Johnson.

The Lord which chose me BEFORE THY FATHER, and BEFORE ALL HIS HOUSE. Old Test.

To stand, sit BEFORE THE FIRE. i. e. so as to face it.
They could not take hold of his Words BEFORE THE PEOPLE. i. e. in the Presence of the People.

Both Parties shall come BEFORE THE JUDGES. Old T.
The Alps and Pyreneans sink BEFORE HIM. Addison.
To bring a Cause BEFORE THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

BEFORE is very frequently used as an Adverb; as, *BEFORE I had done speaking in my Heart, behold Rebekah came forth.* Old Test. *BEFORE they call, I will answer, &c.*

Against.

The Names which depend on this Preposition denote something considered as *opposed*, or *for the coming where of Provision is made*; as,

Trouts and Salmons swim AGAINST THE STREAM.
Bacon.

AGAINST WHOM hast thou exalted thyself. Old Test.

AGAINST THE PROMIS'D TIME provides with Care.
Dryden.

Against is sometimes used as an Adverb; as,
Thou shalt stand by the River's Brink AGAINST he com-
 Old Test. where it is observable that *come* is of the Sub-
 junctive Mood.

Beside, besides.

These, when they relate to the Place, denote, that whatsoever depends on them expresses *that, near the Side of which, something is represented*; as,

Blessed are ye that sow BESIDE ALL WATERS. Old Test.
BESIDE HIM hung his Bow. Milton.

These Prepositions likewise refer to the Name which something is *over and above*, or *not quite according to, or somewhat deviating from*; as, *BESIDES ALL THIS, between us and you there is a great Gulf.* New Test.

*It is BESIDES MY PRESENT BUSINESS to enlarge upon
this Speculation. Locke.*

Paul, thou art BESIDES THYSELF. New Test.

Near, nigh.

These Prepositions direct to the Name of some Object or State from which something is considered as not far distant ; as,

*Passing through the Street NEAR HER CORNER. Old T.
This Child was very NEAR BEING EXCLUDED out of the
Species of Man, barely by his Shape. Locke.*

In the Translation of the Scriptures, *to*, or *unto*, is very frequently used after *near* and *nigh* ; as,

*Jacob went NEAR TO Isaac. Give me thy Vineyard,
because it is NEAR UNTO my House. A Virgin, NIGH TO him,
may be defiled.*

This Construction is not used at present, unless in very solemn Language.

By has frequently the Signification of *near*, as has been already shewn under the 19th Rule, Article 3.

By and by is an adverbial Expression, denoting Time, considered as following nearly the Time of speaking.

Toward, towards.

These refer to Names, denoting that by which some Direction, or Tendency of Approach is ascertained ; as,

I will look TOWARDS thy holy Temple. Old Test.

His Heart relented TOWARDS her. Milton.

It is TOWARDS Evening. New Test.

Unto.

Of the same Meaning as *to*, but now little used.

Into.

This Preposition refers to the Name of whatsoever considered as entered, or beyond the outer Parts or Limits of which the Attention is carried; as,

The Children of Israel went INTO the Midst of the Land of the Old Test.

To look INTO Letters, Books, &c. to examine INTO Things &c.

A Man may whorē and drink himself INTO Atheism; but it is impossible he should think himself INTO it. Bentley.

And the Name which denotes *that to which* Things are brought by Composition, Resolution, or the Exertion of Labour, Skill, &c. takes *into* before it; as, *componē*. *Bodies may be resolved INTO OTHER SUBSTANCES than those WHICH they are INTO by Fire.* Boyle.

They shall beat their Swords INTO PLOUGH-SHARES and their Spears INTO PRUNING-HOOKS. Old Test.

At.

This Preposition shews, that what depends upon it denotes a Circumstance considered as merely present, or co-existent with some Object or State.

If the Circumstance be Place, or that by which Place or Direction is estimated, the Name, with *at* before it shews the Place or Direction is ascertained by it; as,

All the City was gathered AT THE DOOR. New Test.

Thou hast thrust sore AT ME. Old Test.

So to be AT SUCH A PLACE, AT SEA, AT LAND, &c.

To look, strike, push, aim AT SUCH A THING.

If the Circumstance be Time, or that by which Time is estimated, *at* shews the Circumstance to be co-existent with that State of Things to which it is applied; as, *Things were so AT SUCH A TIME; we must march AT THE FIRST SIGNAL; a Bill payable AT SIGHT.*

AT HIS TOUCH they presently amend. Shakespear.

It shakes AT EVERY BLAST. Dryd.

Deserted AT HIS UTMOST NEED. Ibid.

It follows from hence, that the Beginning, End, Middle, or any Period of continued State, may be ascertained by representing it as *at* any Circumstance which is co-existent therewith ; as,

To begin, end, live, die at London, Rome, &c. at such a time, at the Birth of Christ, &c.

But if the Place be a Country, we make this Reference *in* ; as, *to begin, end, live, die in France, in Italy* : and if the Name of Time be that of any larger Part thereof, *in* is likewise used ; as, *to begin, end, live, in such an Age, Year, Month, &c.*

To be, to play AT CARDS, DICE, BOWLS, or any other Game.

To be at War, at Peace, at Variance, at Work, at Play,

To do a Thing AT THE INSTIGATION, COMMAND, UNIT, ENTREATY of such a one.

To be AT COMMAND, to have one AT COMMAND, i. e. ready whensoever a Command is given.

To deserve, well, ill, something, nothing AT A MAN'S HANDS are peculiar Expressions : For we say *to deserve, well, ill, something, nothing OF A MAN.*

Within.

This Preposition refers to Place and Time, considered extending farther than that which is referred ; as, *the river is wholly lost WITHIN the Waters of the Lake, and discovers nothing of the Stream till WITHIN about a quarter of a Mile from Geneva.* Addison.

— *WITHIN these three Hours.* Tullus.

Alone

Alone I fought in your Corioli Walls. Shakespear.

Hence this Preposition is used to refer to the Name whatsoever is considered as *more extensive*; as,

This latter which is more WITHIN our Comprehension. Locke.

Both he and she are still WITHIN my Power. Dryden.

Be informed how much your Husband's Revenue amounts to, and be so good a Computer as to keep WITHIN it. Swift.

The desp'rate Savage rush'd WITHIN my Force. Otway. i. e. so near me, that my Force exerted itself beyond the Savage.

WITHIN DOORS, WITHIN DOOR ARTS, are particular Expressions, signifying Relation to the Inside of a House in Opposition to the open Air.

Between, betwixt.

Whatsoever is so related to *two Objects*, as to be equally affected by both, whether by *Situation, Duration, Intercourse, Partnership, Separation, or Distinction*, may be referred to the Names of the Objects by *between* or *twixt*.

If the Objects to which the Reference is made be both of the same Species, the Plural Number is used; as, *Distance BETWEEN THE TOWNS*; *the Time BETWEEN THE PAYMENTS, &c.* If the Objects are not of the same Species, two Names are joined by the Conjunction *and*; as, *the Distance BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE*; *the Time BETWEEN THE CREATION AND THE FLOOD.*

Zacharias whom ye slew between THE TEMPLE AND THE ALTAR. New Test.

He should think himself unhappy, if Things should go BETWEEN them. Bacon.

Castor and Pollux with only one Soul BETWEEN them. Locke.

I will put a Division BETWEEN my People and Egypt.
Old Test.

I am this Day fourscore Years old, and can I discern BETWEEN Good and Evil ? Old Test.

Children quickly distinguish BETWEEN what is required them, and what not. Locke.

I am in a Strait BETWIXT two. New Test.

Among, amongst.

These Prepositions refer to more than two Objects, when something is considered ; as, mingling with them, so uniting with them as to make Part of their Number ;

—*They heard,*

*And from his Presence hid themselves AMONG
The thickest of the Trees.* Milton.

Blessed art thou AMONG Women. New Test.

*He had disposed all the remarkable Shows about Town
AMONG the Scenes and Decorations of his Piece.* Addison.
pectat. No. 31.

Amidst, or amid.

These Words have sometimes the Signification of *in*, *into the Middle of*, and sometimes that of *amongst* ; as,
But of the Fruit of this fair Tree AMIDST

The Garden, God hath said, ye shall not eat. Milton.

The Boar AMIDST my crystal Streams I bring. Dryden.

*What though no real Voice nor Sound
AMID their radiant Orbs be found.* Addison.

About.

This Preposition, when applied to Place, Time, or Quantity, signifies *near to* ; as, *there was no Room to receive them, no not so much as ABOUT the Door.* New T.

When he was ABOUT an hundred Years old. Old T.
He went out ABOUT the third Hour. Ibid.

It

It was ABOUT an Ephah of Barley. Old Test.
And when applied to Persons, *about* signifies near Person; as,

If you have this ABOUT YOU, you may Boldly assault the Necromancer's Hall. Milton.

She bath no Body to do any Thing ABOUT HER when am gone. Shakespear.

About frequently refers to the Name of that concerning which we act or think; as,

The Shekels of Silver ABOUT WHICH thou cursedst. Old Test.

To let us know in our Mother-Tongue what it is our Countrymen are ABOUT; i. e. what it is, about, or concerning which, our Countrymen are employed.

A speculative Knowledge of Things, or a practical Skill ABOUT them. Tillotson.

I must be ABOUT my Father's Business. New Test. i. e. I must be diligent concerning my Father's Business.

About likewise is frequently applied in the Sense of around; i. e. of encircling or surrounding; as,

Hast thou not made a Hedge ABOUT HIM? Old Test.

ABOUT his Neck she cast her trembling Arms. Dryden. i. e. a Hedge round about him; round about his Neck.

Around.

The same as *round about*, or *surrounding*.

Through, or thorough.

From one Extremity to the other; as,
A Simplicity shines THROUGH all he writes. Dryden.

Through is frequently applied with States of Passage, to denote the Passage as compleated from one Extremity to the other; as,

*He took three Darts in his Hand, and thrust them
THROUGH THE HEART of Absalom.* Old Test.

*There is one God and Father of all, who is above all, and
THROUGH ALL, and in you all.* New Test.

Through is likewise prefixed to the Name of that which is considered as the *Means* or *Motive* of effecting any Thing ; as,

Ye are clean THROUGH THE WORD which I have spoken unto you. New Test.

*Some THROUGH AMBITION, or THE THIRST OF GOLD,
Have slain their Brothers.* Dryden.

Throughout.

*Quite through ; as,
This Gospel shall be preached THROUGHOUT the whole World.* New Test.

Out of.

Of, in the Sense of from, is the Preposition, and out is an Adverb.

Out of signifies either *from within, or not in.*

From within, ; as, to grow OUT OF Clefts. Bacon.

OUT OF THE HEART proceed evil Thoughts. New T.

Hence, the Name of whatsoever denotes the Substance, Capacity, Content of that whereof any Thing proceeds, is formed, derived, &c. may take *out of* before it; as, *in the Sweat of thy Face shalt thou eat Bread, till thou return into the Ground, for OUT OF IT wast thou taken.* Old Test.

He performs all OUT OF his own Fund. Dryden.

All the Fruits OUT OF WHICH Drink is pressed. Bacon.

There were dwelling at Jerusalem, Jews, devout Men, OUT OF EVERY NATION under Heaven. New Test.

To persuade, fright a Man OUT OF his Senses, &c.

The Name of the Means, Motive, or Reason whence Things become so or so, frequently takes out of before it; as,

Trade and Commerce might doubtless be still varied a thousand Ways, OUT OF WHICH would arise such Branches as have not yet been touched. Spectat. No. 283.

A War in which we engaged not OUT OF AMBITION, but for the Defence of all that was dear to us. Atterbury and likewise to do so or so OUT OF COWARDICE, Laziness, Ignorance, Conscience, &c.

Out of has likewise frequently the Signification of *not in*; as,

One born OUT OF DUE TIME. New Test.

Chiefs OUT OF WAR, and Statesmen OUT OF PLACE Pope.

Be instant OUT OF SEASON. New Test.

When the Mouth is OUT OF TASTE. Bacon.

Bells OUT OF TUNE. Shakespear.

And so to be OUT OF LOVE with this or that; out of Reach, Hearing, Distance, Proportion, &c.

Without.

This Preposition is sometimes the Negative of *within*, and sometimes the Negative of *with*.

Thus, it signifies *not within*, or *at the Outside of*, i. e. *Jesus also suffered WITHOUT THE GATE.* New Test.

Eternity is WITHOUT OUR REACH. Burnet.

But it is more commonly applied to signify *not with* as, *there is no living with thee nor WITHOUT THEE.* Adison.

Israel hath been WITHOUT THE TRUE GOD. Old Test.
Wise Men will do it WITHOUT LAW. Bacon.

After.

The Name of whatsoever is considered as *followed*, either in Time, or by successive Position, Motion, Imi-

ation, or any discursive Operation, may take this Preposition before it ; as,

Ie know that AFTER TWO DAYS is the Feast of the Passover. New Test.

Sometimes I placed a third Prism AFTER A SECOND. Newton.

The Army of the Chaldeans pursued AFTER THE King. Old Test.

There are many particular Figures of her made AFTER THE SAME DESIGN. Addison.

This Allusion is AFTER THE ORIENTAL MANNER.

Pope.

He takes Greatness of Kingdoms according to Bulk and Currency, and not AFTER THEIR INTRINSICK Value.

Bacon.

Behind.

The Name of whatsoever is considered as departed, may take this Preposition before it in Dependence on the Verb to leave ; as, *he left BEHIND HIM myself and a sister,* Shakespear. i. e. he left at his going away, &c.

Likewise *he has left his Gloves, Whip, Cane, BEHIND HIM.* i. e. at his Departure.

And so with Regard to Death : *What he gave me publish was but a small Part of what he left BEHIND HIM.* Pope. i. e. at his Death.

The Name likewise of the Object by which Deficiency, or Want of Excellence, is estimated, may take this Preposition before it ; as,

They wept, which beheld how much this latter (Temple) came BEHIND IT ; i. e. the first Temple by which the Effect of the latter is estimated.

When this Preposition is used to determine Place, it refers to the hinder Part of any Thing, or to that which is on the opposite Side to the Front or Face of it; as, *thou hast cast me BEHIND THY BACK.* Old Test.

To sit, stand BEHIND A SCREEN, CURTAIN, BED, &c.

Beyond.

On the contrary Side of, farther in Distance than more advanced than, exceeding; as,

The good Land that is BEYOND JORDAN. Old Test.

The Arrows are BEYOND THEE. Ibid.

What's Fame? A fancied Life in others Breath.

A Thing BEYOND us, ev'n before our Death. Pope.

They were sore amazed in themselves BEYOND MEASURE. New Test.

And so beyond *Thought, Conception; beyond their Power, Capacity, Income, &c.*

Off.

The Negative of *on*; as,

I was never OFF MY LEGS. Temple. i. e. never otherwise than on my Legs.

Off likewise signifies *distant from*; as,

Cicero's Tusculum was at a Place called Grotto Ferrata about two Miles OFF THIS TOWN. Addison.

Above.

Higher than, more than, as,

The Mountain of the Lord's House shall be exalted ABOVE THE HILLS. Old Test. i. e. higher than the Hills.

The Man was ABOVE FORTY YEARS old. New Test. i. e. more than forty Years old.

Hence the Name of whatsoever is excelled or exceeded, frequently takes *above* before it; as,

There is one God who is ABOVE ALL. New Test.

Things may be ABOVE OUR REASON, without being contrary to it. Swift.

And hence, *above* sometimes signifies *too high spirited* &c; *as, he is ABOVE A MEAN ACTION.*

Kings and Princes, in the earliest Ages of the World, were ABOVE NOTHING that tended to promote the Conveniences of Life. Pope.

On, upon.

These Prepositions refer to the Names of Objects, when the Attention is carried to the upper Part or Side of them; as,

Perch'd ON THE TREE. Dryden.

As I did stand my Watch UPON THE HILL. Shakespear.

Hence, the Name of whatsoever is considered as the Foundation on which any Thing rests, takes these Prepositions before it.

A wise man which built his House UPON A ROCK. New Test.

God commands us, by our Dependence UPON HIS TRUTH, believe a Fact which we do not understand. Swift.

Saul leaned ON HIS SPEAR. Old Test.

We now may boldly spend, UPON THE HOPE.

Of what is to come in. Shakespear.

We charge you, ON ALLEGIANCE TO OURSELVES,

To hold your slaughtering Hands. Shakespear.

Hence, ON THY LIFE, the captive Maid is mine. Dryden.

For here the *Allegiance* is considered as the Foundation of the Charge, and the Man's Regard to his *Life*, as the foundation of the Threat.

The

The Name of the Subject of our Thought or Speech
likewise takes *on* or *upon* before it; as,

But while he thought ON THESE THINGS. New Test.
OTHER OFFENDERS we shall PAUSE UPON. Shakes.
So to think or call ON or UPON A PERSON.

The Names of Objects to which the Attention is carried, so as to consider Things or States; as, *close them take on or upon* before them; as,

A Village UPON THE RIVER KENNEDY. Clarendon.
Berwick UPON TWEED, &c.

ON EACH SIDE of her stood pretty dimpled Boys. Shakspear.

And so to play UPON THE VIOLIN, HAUTEBOY, &c.
Tb' unhappy Husband, Husband now no more,
Did ON HIS TUNEFUL HARP his Loss deplore. Dryden.
And with Regard to Time or Occasion, *on* or *up* shews that something comes to pass together therewith, as,

The Extasy of a Harlequin ON THE RECEIPT of a Letter from his Mistress. Dryden.

The best Way to be taken ON ANY OCCASION. Locke.
Because Jesus had healed on THE SABBATH-DAY New Test.

But *on* or *upon* is used with no Name of Time except *Day*, and sometimes in the Scriptures, with *Hour*.

Below.

This Preposition refers to the Name of that to which something is considered as inferior either in Place, Dignity, Value, or in any other Respect; as,

A Street or House BELOW THE HILL.

His Idylliums of Theocritus are as much BELOW HIS M
NILUS, as the Fields are BELOW THE STARS. Felton.

This Method is not only dangerous, but BELOW THE PRACTICE of a reasonable Creature. Spectat. No. 25.

Beneath.

Directly below or underneath, and sometimes the same below.

Thus, beneath is equivalent to underneath, in
Their woolly Fleeces he laid BENEATH HIM. Dryden.
And Palms for thee BENEATH HER LAURELS grow.

And sink BENEATH THE BURDENS which they bear.
Dryden.

But it is equivalent to below, in
He will do nothing BENEATH HIS HIGH STATION.
Batterbury.

Under.

This Preposition refers to the Name of that which is something so much below it, as to keep in Subject, or to afford Cover, Concealment, or Shelter; as,
be under Ground, under Water, &c.

We are not UNDER THE LAW. New Test.

Many a good Poetic Vein is buried UNDER A TRADE.
Locke.

The Lord God of Israel, UNDER WHOSE WINGS thou comest to trust. Old Test.

Whatsoever is lower in Situation, is commonly full in view to those who are placed higher. Hence, under is applied in References of View, Proof, Consideration, Correction, &c. as,

To present them all UNDER ONE VIEW. Burnet.

The Thing UNDER PROOF is not capable of Demonstration. Locke.

The Subject UNDER CONSIDERATION. Locke.

A Poem which lay so long UNDER Virgil's CORRECTION. Addison.

Whatsoever is lower, is deficient in Height or Degree, therefore *under* is often used to refer to that by which the Defect is estimated ; as,

If you write UNDER YOUR OWN STRENGTH. Dryden.
There are several hundred Parishes in England under TWENTY POUNDS a Year. Swift.

He will take nothing UNDER SUCH A SUM.

To give or leave UNDER ONE'S HAND are particular Expressions, signifying to give or leave attested in Writing.

Underneath.

Directly under, or quite under ; as,

*UNDERNEATH THIS STONE doth lie
As much Virtue as could die.* Ben. Johnson.

Up, Down.

These Words, when used as Prepositions, are only applied with States of Motion. *Up* carries on the Attention to place continually higher and higher ; *Down*, place lower and lower ; as, *to go UP A HILL* ; *to fall DOWN A PRECIPICE, &c.*

As to the Construction of the *Interjection* (which is the only Part of Speech that remains to be considered) a Rule is necessary. For the Interjection, together with the Tone of Voice, or other demonstrative Circumstance which attends the Utterance of it, is a complete Declaration ; so that it has little or no Effect on the Construction of the rest of the Sentence : Only it is improper to observe, that *ah me ! wo is me !* are a Kind of Interjections, in which the Accusative Case is used.

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XXXIII

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Of absolute Construction.

This Kind of Construction appears when one or more Words are united with other Words, without directly mentioning the Conjunction, Relative Adverb, or other connective Word which is used in the common Method of Construction ; but by leaving *the Form of Construction* *itself to supply what is omitted*. This Manner of Expression falls under *the Figure Ellipsis* : But, as it occurs very frequently, it is usually considered as a regular, and not as an elliptical Form of Speech.

- XXXIII. 1. In absolute Construction you'll perceive
Sometimes the Verb plac'd in th' Infinitive.
2. And Nom'natives with Participles join'd
In absolute Construction oft you'll find.

1. The first Kind of absolute Construction mentioned in the Rule, appears in such Expressions as the following.

To BEGIN with *the celestial Persons*. Spect. No. 357.

To RESUME one of *the Morals of my first Paper*.
No. 323.

I propose to begin with the celestial Persons.—I
think it proper to resume one of the Morals, &c.

2. But the most common Kind of absolute Construction is that which is the second in the Rule. This appears when a Series of Words, containing a Participle in dependence on a Substantive in the Nominative Case, is made equivalent to a whole Sentence depending on Conjunction or Relative Adverb; as,

THE COOL OF THE EVENING BEING A CIRCUMSTANCE, with which holy Writ introduces this great Scene;

T

it

it is poetically described by our Author. Addis. Spec. No. 357.

i. e. Whereas, or because the Cool of the Evening is &c.

I BEING IN THE WAY, the Lord led me to the House of my Master's Brethren. Old Test. i. e. whilst I was in the Way, &c.

If a Man borrow ought of his Neighbour, and it be but or die, THE OWNER THEREOF NOT BEING WITH IT, shall surely make it good. Old Test.

i. e. if or supposing that the Owner thereof be not with it.

Instances may be easily found in which this Kind of Construction supplies the Place of a Sentence in Dependence on almost any Conjunction or Relative Adverb.

Of FIGURATIVE SYNTAX.

The Rules which have hitherto been given, relate to Forms of Construction that are usually considered as regular and of ordinary Use : But it is often convenient to depart from these Forms, for the Sake of Dispatch or Variety. When such Departure appears in Language, the Construction is said to be figurative : And the Gramarians have reduced it under four general Heads of Figures, called ELLIPSIS, PLEONASM, ENALLAGE, and HYPERBATON.

Of the Figure Ellipsis.

When Words are constructed according to this Figure, there is something omitted, or left to be supplied by the Mind, from the Nature of what is expressed, or from Circumstances attending the Discourse, or from the established Custom of the Language in which we speak.

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Thus, in the Proverbs of all Languages, many Words are usually left to be supplied from the trite obvious Nature of what they express ; as, *out of Sight out of Mind ; the more the merrier, &c.*

In actual Conversation, demonstrative Circumstances often supply the Omission of Words ; as when the Grave-digger in Shakespear says, *come, my Spade* ; the Words *give me*, or others of like Import, are supplied by the Situation of the Speaker, or by some Action of his ; and so of innumerable Instances.

In passionate Speeches much is commonly left to be supplied from the Situation and Circumstances of the Speaker ; as, *deny to speak with me ! they're sick ! they're weary !* and in many other of Lear's Speeches in Shakespeare ; and so of other Instances, which it is sufficient just to mention in a Work of Grammar : For this Part of the Figure Ellipsis properly belongs to the Art of Rhetoric.

The chief Instances of Ellipsis which obtain in English from the meer Custom of the Language, are the proper Subject of this Work, and these are the following.

- XXXIV. 1. Infinitives, without their Sign, succeed
The Verbs *see, hear, feel, bid, dare, let,*
have, need.
- 2. The Signs of Compound Tenses oft appear
The Repetition of the Verb to spare.
- 3. With Casual *that* we often may dispence,
Or with a Relative, and yet preserve the Sense.

- 1. The Verbs *to see, hear, feel*, and the rest which are mentioned in the Rule, take an Infinitive Mood after them without the Sign *to* ; as,

Thou shalt not see thy Brother's Ox or As fall down by the Way, and bide thyself from him. Old Test.

We heard him say I will destroy this Temple. New T
I feel the Pain abate.

He bid her alight. Shakespear.

One who durst his Destiny controul. Dryden.

When *dare* signifies to *defy*, or *challenge*, it requires the Sign to before an Infinitive dependent Verb, as, *I dare thee but to breathe upon my love.* Shakespear.

Moses let his Father depart. Old Test.

I would fain have any one name to me that Tongue. Locke.

Let and *have*, in this Use of them, are not auxiliaries, but active Verbs; *Let* signifying to *permit*, and *have*, to *procure* or *prevail upon*.

He needed but use the word body. Locke.

2. *Do, did, have, had, shall, will, may, might*, and the rest of the Signs of the Compound Tenses, are frequently used alone to spare the Repetition of the Verb; as,

We succeeded, but they did not. i. e. did not succeed.

They must and shall be punished. i. e. they must be punished. And so of other Instances.

3. *That*, when prefixed to a Sentence, is only a Notice that the whole Sentence is to be considered as one Substantive in some Case. Now it frequently happens that the Nature of what is said makes it unnecessary to give this Notice directly; and in such Instances *that* is omitted; as,

I fear it comes too much from the heart. Spect. No. 322.
i. e. that it comes too much, &c.

I remember, last Winter, there were several young Girls sitting about the Fire. Spectat. No. 12.

i. e. that

e. that last Winter there were several young Girls sitting, &c

For it comes too much from the Heart, expresses that which is feared; and last Winter there were, &c. expresses what which is remembered: And therefore each of these expressions, though a full Sentence, is equivalent to one substantive in the Accusative Case.

The Relative Pronoun may likewise often be omitted. or it only shews that its Clause is to be considered as a Noun Adjective, or one Coalescent Participle depending on its Antecedent. And this often appears from the Nature of what is said, without actually mentioning the Relative; as, *the Aversion I have had to clubs, gave me, &c.* Spectat. No. 24.
e. the Aversion which I have had, &c.

I have gained the Faculty I have been so long endeavouring after. Ibid. No. 556.

the Faculty which I have been so long endeavouring after; or, the Faculty after which I have been so long endeavouring. And so of other Instances, which occur very frequently in English.

Of Pleonasm.

The Construction which falls under this Figure seldom occurs in English, and when it does occur, it is usually considered as a Fault: thus, *God HE knows.* *The Provoſt HE ſhall bear them;* and other like Instances Shakespear, are not now in Use: And the placing of and did meerly to fill up a Verse has been ridiculed by Mr. Pope, in, *Expletives their feeble Aid do join.*

Of

Of Enallage.

The Construction which may be reduced to this Figure in English, chiefly appears when one Part of Speech is used with the Power and Effect of another.

Thus, a Substantive has often the Power of an Adjective by being linked to a following Substantive; as *Land-Animal*, *Sea-Water*, *Iron-Wedges*, *Grave-Digger*, *Evening-Walk*, &c.

Any Sort of Words, or any Series of Words, when used to signify the Sound or written Appearance only may be used as a Substantive; as, *her innocent FOL SOOTHES, YESSES, AN'T PLEASE YOU'S moved the good old Lady.* No. 266.

On the other Hand, Adjectives are often used with the Power and Effect of Substantives ; as,

Not only THE WHOLE, but the principal Members should be great. Spectat. No. 267.

You are IN THE WRONG. Shakespear.

And so the Righteous, the Wicked, in the Scripture and many Instances in almost any Book.

Adjectives are frequently used as Adverbs; as, *rig
well* for *perfectly well*; *straight forwards* for *directly fo
wards*, &c. and so *in short*, for *in a few Words*; at lea
for *taking Things in the lowest Degree*, &c. &c.

When Adjectives of the Comparative or Superlative Degree are used as Adverbs, they are frequently emphatical, or the most expressive Words of the Sentence and when so, they take the Definite Article before them ; as, **THE MORE** I think of this **THE BETTER** I like it.

*it; I understand it THE BETTER for what you have told
me; I like this THE WORST of all.*

The Coalescent Participles are continually assuming the Nature of Adjectives, by being applied to signify, not occasional States, but permanent Situations or Qualities; as, *a running Water, a striped Garment, a learned Man, an abandoned Wretch, &c.*

The Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Prepositions are often used with the Power and Effect of each other; but it is not necessary to multiply Examples on this Head, because no Inconvenience ensues from ranking the same Word under any of the three Classes according to its different Use; as for Instance, in *he went before, and they followed after*; *before* and *after* may be considered as Adverbs: But, in *I came after they were gone, after* has the Force of a Conjunction, joining the Sentences *I came, they were gone*; yet *after* is a Preposition; as has been already shewn.

The Particle *that* appears in the Characters of so many Parts of Speech, that a Rule may not be unnecessary to direct a Learner how to distinguish when it belongs to one Part of Speech, and when to another.

- XXXV. 1. Whenever *that* may in its Place receive, Or *who*, or *which*, it is A RELATIVE.
- 2. But to a Sentence, when it gives a Case, Of A CONJUNCTION, it supplies the Place.
- 3. With Names united, or instead of Names When us'd, to be DEMONSTRATIVE, it claims.

1. Thus, in the following Sentences, *that* is a Relative Pronoun. *Every one THAT has read the Critics.*

Defat. No. 321. *The only Objection THAT she seems to insinuate.*

insinuate. Ibid. No. 605. For the Sentences may be turned into every one who has read, &c. The only Objection which she seems, &c.

2. In it happened THAT the King himself passed through the Gallery. Spectat. No. 289. That is a casual or potential Demonstrative Conjunction: For it now gives Notice that the Sentence, the King himself passed through the Gallery, is a Kind of Nominative Case answering it, and shewing that which happened. That is a Kind of a Reditive Conjunction, when it answers to so as such; as, I applied myself with so much Diligence to my Studies, THAT there are very few celebrated Books which I am not acquainted with. Spectat. No. 1.

To such a Degree was my Curiosity raised, THAT I made a Voyage to Grand Cairo on purpose to take the Measure of the Pyramid. Ibid.

For in these Examples, that gives Notice that the Sentences, there are very few celebrated Books, &c. I made a Voyage to Grand Cairo, &c. determine the Degree of Diligence, and of Curiosity, which so and such refer to.

3. But when it is said THAT is a Latin Book, or THAT Book is a Latin Book, or the Contents of THAT Latin Book, that is a demonstrative Pronoun; and so of other Instances.

When that is used as a demonstrative Pronoun, takes the Sign of any Case, or any Preposition, before it; as, the Force OF THAT Engine; an Inclination TO THAT Vice; the Difference BETWEEN THAT and this, &c.

Of the Hyperbaton.

This Figure takes Place when the most simple Order is not observed in placing Words in Sentences. This Order

Order, in English, consists in placing the Subject of a Sentence before the Definitive Verb; and, if the Subject consist of several Words, in placing the Words which immediately affect each other as near together as possible; and the same in the Predicate, if it consist of several Words: But it is often convenient, even in Prose, to depart from this Order: And in Verse it is continually necessary to do it, for the Sake of Dignity, or Harmony, or Variety. Thus, the Sentence *for the moving of Pity our principal Machine is the Handkerchief.* Spect. No. 44. if reduced to the most simple Order, would be, *our principal Machine for the moving of Pity is the Handkerchief;* and *Arms and the Man I sing,* would be, *I sing Arms and the Man.* And so of other Instances.

There is no End of shewing by Examples the different Ways by which we may depart safely, and even advantageously, from the most simple Order of Construction. This must be left to Use, and the Observation of the best Writers. The most simple Order is generally the most easy to be understood, and the least liable to Ambiguity; but it is often languid and unaffected: And, on the contrary, Inversion of Order, if carried to any great Degree, whilst it gives Dignity to the Expression, is apt to make it somewhat intricate and difficult.



B O O K III.

Of Prosody.

THIS Part of Grammar treats of Syllables, considered as *long or short*; i. e. as more or less Time U is

is taken in pronouncing them : And of the Order of Succession in which these Syllables are to be placed in Poetry, so as to constitute Harmony.* *Accent, Emphasis,* and the due *Modulation* of the Voice in Reading and Speaking, may also be considered as included in this Part of Grammar : But with Regard to the due Modulation of the Voice, there is no Possibility of shewing it otherwise than by actual Reading or Speaking ; and the Emphasis is much of the same Nature : So that these must be left to the Care and Judgment of the Teacher, or to the Attention of the Learner, in observing those who read and speak well.

The Accent will be explained in what follows.

English Verses are usually distinguished into Sorts, by the Number of Syllables which each contains : But the Rythmus, or successive Modulation, cannot be ascertained by a certain Number of Syllables only. The Succession of long and short, or of short and long Syllables, according to some certain Law, constitutes the Rythmus of every Sort of Verse ; and if this Law be neglected in any considerable Degree, the Verse will be void of Harmony. Thus, in the following Line of Dr. Donne,

Better Pictures of Vice teach me Virtue,
there is no Rythmus, or Poetic Measure : For the long Syllables and the short ones succeed each other in the following Order.

Better

* A long Syllable has this Mark (—) over it ; and a short Syllable this Mark (◦) in some of the first Examples which follow : But in the remaining Examples, this Mark (') is placed over the long Syllables ; and the short are left without any Mark.

* Our Grammars in the Accented Syllables coincide in this Mark placed

Better Pictures of Vice teach me Virtue ; i. e. the first, third, sixth, seventh, and ninth Syllables are long, and the second, fourth, fifth, eighth, and tenth are short : Whereas the first, third, fifth, seventh, and ninth (i. e. the Syllables in the odd Places) should have been short, and the second, fourth, sixth, eighth, and tenth (i. e. those in the even Places) should have been long. †

In the English Pronunciation there is a certain Stress of the Voice laid on some one Syllable at least, of every Word of two or more Syllables ; and that Syllable on which the Stress is laid may be considered as long.*

In the reading of Verse, several Words of more than three Syllables, admit of some additional Stress of the Voice on more Syllables than one ; as, Opportunity,

U 2

Contra-

† For the more easy Ascertainment of the Syllables that suit each Rhythmus, the Greek and Latin Grammarians have shewn the Manner of measuring each Kind of Verse by what they call *Feet*. These consist each of a certain Number of short and long Syllables joined in a certain Order. There are many Sorts of Feet in the Latin and Greek ; but in English we have no Occasion to consider more than four. *The Iambic, the Trochaic, the Dactyl, and the Anapest.* The Iambic Foot consists of a short Syllable placed before a long one ; as, *Revenge, Delight.* The Trochaic Foot, or Trochée, of a long Syllable before a short one ; as, *Virtue, mortal* ; a Dactyl of a long Syllable before two short ones ; as, *terrible* ; an Anapest of two long Syllables before a short one ; as, *the Revenge*.

* Our Grammarians have agreed to consider this Stress of the Voice as the *Accent* in English ; and therefore the Accent and long Quantity coincide in our Language. The Accent is shewn by (') this Mark placed over a Syllable.

Contradiction, Disobedience, &c. This Stress of the Voice never falls on two Syllables immediately succeeding each other in the same Word.

Most of our Monosyllables either take this Stress or not, according as they are more or less emphatical; and therefore English Words of one Syllable may be considered as *common*; i. e. either as long or short in certain Situations. These Situations are chiefly determined by the Pause, or Cesure, of the Verse, and this Pause by the Sense. And as the English abounds in Monosyllables, there is probably no Language in which the Quantity of Syllables is more regulated by the Sense than in English.

The Articles *a*, *an*, and *the*, very seldom admit of any particular Stress of the Voice, and therefore are very seldom to be considered as long Syllables.

The Signs of the Cases are likewise usually short, without the Stress of Voice. And the Signs of the Tenses are commonly so, unless when they are used to save the Repetition of the Verb.

As to Words of more than one Syllable, those Syllables which are added to the End of Nouns and Verbs by Declension, Comparison, and Conjugation, are short or without the Stress of Voice; as,

Face, Faces; great, greater, greatest; call, called, calling: But the Termination *ed* is usually reduced to a with the Mark of Elision; as, *call'd*.

Rules may be given for the Quantity of the Syllables of English Words: But Specimens of the principal Kinds of English Verse will be sufficient to direct Lear-

the
several Kinds are to be composed. If the Quantity of the
Syllables of any particular Word is doubted, Mr. John-
son's Dictionary may be consulted; for in it the Sylla-
ble, which is pronounced in each Word with the great-
est Stress of Voice, is marked with an Accent.

Of the principal Kinds of English Verse.

Our Verses usually consist of four, six, eight, ten, or
twelve Syllables; or of three, five, or seven.

The former Kinds may be considered as of a Species
of *Iambic Measure*, consisting, for the most Part, of Syl-
lables alternately short and long: For this seems to have
been the Iambic Rythmus of the Antients.

The latter Kinds may be considered as of a Species of
Trochaic Measure, consisting of Syllables alternately
long and short: For this seems to have been the Tro-
chaic Rythmus of the Antients.

We have some other Measures in Lyric Poetry, and
Songs, which will appear in the following Examples.

Of the Iambic Measure.

In Verses of four Syllables.

With rávish'd Eárs
The Mónarch héars. *Dryden.*
Unheárd, unknówn,
He mákes his Móan. *Pope.*

Of Six.

Blow, blów, thou Wínter Wínd,
Thou árt not só unkínd
As Mán's ingrátítúde. *Shakesp.*

These

These two Kinds are seldom used, but in Odes and
Songs, and with Rhime.

Of Eight.

And may at last my weary age
Find out the peaceful Hérmitage. *Milton.*
Quoth she, some say the Soul's secure
Against *Distréss and Forfeiture*. *Butler's Hudibras.*
This Measure is chiefly used in Tales and Fable
and with Rhime.

Of Ten.

The Dumb shall sing, the Lame his Crutch forego,
And leap exulting like the bounding Roe. *Pope.*
I through the ample Air in Triumph high
Shall lead Hell captive maugre Hell, and show
The Powr's of Darkness bound; thou, at the Sign
Pleas'd, out of Heaven shalt look down and smile. *Milton.*

This is the Heroic Measure in English, being used in
Epic Poetry, Tragedy, and in Poems of Length on
Subjects, and that either with or without Rhime.

Of Twelve.

The Verses of this Measure are called *Alexandrines*,
and one of them is frequently used amongst Verses of twelve
Syllables in Rhime by Way of Clause; as,
He ceas'd, and ceasing, with Respect he bow'd,
And with his Hand, at once, the fatal Statue shew'd. *Dryden.*

Waller was smooth, but Dryden taught to join
The varying Verse, the full resounding Line,
The long majestic March, and Energy divine.

The Pause in the Alexandrine Verse must be after
the sixth Syllable.

Of the Trochaic Measure.

In Verses of three Syllables.

Chill'd with Feárs,
Kill'd with Teárs. *Addison.*
Sullen Moáns,
Hóllow Gróáns. *Pope.*

Of Five.

Give the Véngeance dúe
Tó the váliant Créw. *Dryden.*

Of Seven.

Mélanchóly lífts her Héad,
Mórpheus rouses fróm his Béd,
Slóth unfólds her árms and wákes,
Líft'ning énvy dróps her Snákes. *Pope.*

The Trochaic Measure is only used in Odes and Songs :
and in these the two following Measures sometimes
ewise appear. The first may be called the Dactylic ;
and the second the Anapæstic : Because in the first, two
short Syllables succeed a long one, which, as is mention-
above, is the Foot called a Dactyl by the Greeks
and Romans : And in the second, two short Syllables
succeed a long one, which is the Foot called an An-
apest. But in the Dactylic Measure, a short Syllable is
prefixed, and a long Syllable subjoined to the Dactyls,
whether one or more, of which each Verse consists ; as,

No, nó, 'tis decréed
The Tráytress shall bléed. *Addison.*
Diógenes fúrly and prou'd
Who snárl'd at the Mácedon Yóuth.

My

My Tíme, O ye Múses, was háppily spént

When Phœbe went wíth me where éver I wen

If a short Syllable be prefixed to the Dactylic Mea-
sure, it becomes Anapæstic; as,

In my Ráge shall be séen

The Revénge of a Quéen.

Addison.

See the Fúries arisé!

See the Snákes that they réar!

How they hiss in their Háiř,

And the Spárkle which flásh from their Eyés. Dryd.

And the King feiz'd a Flámbeau, with Zéal to de-
stroy.

Dryd.

All the Measures above described are frequently in-
termixed in Songs and Odes, by placing Verses first
of one Measure, and then of another, in a great Variety
of Combinations. Sometimes they are varied by dou-
ble Endings, either with or without Rhime; as,

In the Iambic Measure.

'Twas when the Seas were roaring

With hollow Blasts of Wind,

A Damsel lay deploring,

All on a Rock reclin'd.

Gay.

She made it plain that human Passion

Was ordered by Predestination.

Prior.

To be, or not to be; that is the Question.

Whether 'tis nobler in the Mind to suffer

The Slings and Arrows of outrageous Fortune,

Or to take Arms against a Sea of Troubles,

And by opposing end them.

Shakespear.

Nor suffers Horace more in wrong Translations

By Wits, than Critics in as wrong Quotations.

W.

When the Trochaic Measures are formed with double Endings, they become exceeding soft ; as,

Rich the Treásure,
Sweet the Pléasure. *Dryden.*

Ó the pléasing pléasing Ánguish,
Whén we lóve, and whén we lánguish. *Addison.*

Sóftly, swéet, in Lydian Meásures
Sóon he fóoth'd his Sóul to Pleáasures. *Dryden.*

The Dactylic and Anapæstic Measures are likewise frequently softened by double Endings ; as,

For of ús pretty Féllows
Our Wíves are so jéalous,
They ne'er have enóugh of our Dúty. *Addison.*
Now with Fúries surroúnded,
Despáiring, confóunded. *Pope.*

It appears from these Examples, that the Feet of our Verses are not so fixed as never to admit of one Kind of Foot being substituted for another : For in the Line Waller was smooth, but Dryden taught to join.

Waller is a Trochée, and not an Iambic Foot ; and several Verses of the Heroic Measure begin with a *Trochee*, especially in Mr. Pope. Other Changes of one Foot or another may be observed in Milton, and indeed in every other English Poet. But this is no greater Liberty than the Greeks and Romans took in their Iambic Measure ; and therefore, provided the Rythmus be reserved, these Changes are an Advantage to the Harmony of Verse, by adding to the Variety, without destroying the Regularity of it.

The Examples and Observations above may be sufficient to direct a Learner how to place the Words of every Kind of English Verse, so as to make the Verse capable of being read without Offence to the Ear : And this is all that is required from Grammatical Technical Pro-sody. The Elegancies of Versification must be acquired by observing that of the best Poets, with the Assistance of a good Ear, much Attention, and repeated Trials.



A PRAXIS to the GRAMMAR.

Showing how the Rules may be applied in resolving
the English Language, so as to account for the
several Modes of Construction which are used in
it.

Lesson I. Genesis, Chap. I.

- Ver. 1. **I**N the Beginning God created the Heaven and Earth.
2. And the Earth was without Form and void, and Darkness was upon the Face of the Deep: And the Spirit of God moved upon the Face of the Waters.
3. And God said, Let there be Light, and there was Light.
4. And God saw the Light, that it was good: And God divided the Light from the Darkness.
5. And God called the Light Day, and the Darkness he called Night: And the Evening and the Morning were the first Day.

Resolution.

Ver. 1. *In the Beginning.* Noun Substantive of the Ablative Case, Singular Number, and governed of the Verb *created.* By Rule 21. Page 108.

Containing Objects in Dependence seen

On Nouns or Verbs, claim Ablatives by *in.*

For the Beginning is here conceived to determine Period of Time, which comprehends or *contains* the Creation of the World. *The* is the Definite Article, and shews that *the Beginning* here spoken of, is not *any Beginning*, but the particular *Beginning of all created Things.* See Page 40.

God. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case, Singular Number, and third Person, (for here God neither speaks, nor is spoken to. See Pages 32 and 88) and comes before the Verb *created.*

Created. Verb Active Regular of the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative, *God*, by the first Concord, which is Rule VII. Page 87.

In personal Construction Verbs receive Number and Person from a Nom'native.

For had the Verb been *createdſt*, the Expression would have been false Concord; because *God* is here of the third Person, and *Createdſt* is of the second.

The Heaven. Accusative Case Singular Number, and depends on the Verb transitive *created.* For here *The Heaven* is in the Passive State *was created.* This is by Rule XVI. Page 102.

The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer On Nouns which in th'Accusative appear.

The is the Definite Article, shewing that *the Heaven* spoken of is determined; as there is but one *Heaven* in the Creation.

And. Conjunction copulative. See Pages 74 and 75.

The Earth. Noun Substantive, Accusative Case, Singular Number, and coupled by the Conjunction *and*, with *the Heaven*, so as with it to depend on the Verb *was* as the common Word. See Page 75. This is by Rule XXXI. Page 126.

The copulative Conjunctions may connect Like Cases, Moods, and Tenses, which respect Some common Word, &c.

The. Definite Article, as before.

Ver. 2. *And.* Conjunction Copulative, joining the sentence going before, with *the Earth was*, &c. which follows, so as to shew that the Mind considers both the sentences in one View; i. e. as equally suiting its Purpose, and that under the same Mode of Thought. See Page 76.

The Earth. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case, Singular Number, and third Person (for the Earth is here neither represented as speaking nor spoken to) and comes before the Verb *was*.

Was. Verb Neuter Substantive, of the Indicative Mood, Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative Case *the Earth*, by the Concord, which is Rule VII. Page 87.

In personal Construction Verbs receive

Number and Person from a Nom'native.

Had the Verb been *wast* or *were*, the Expression would have been false Concord: For *wast* is of the second Person, and *were* is of the Plural Number: Whereas *the Earth* is of the third Person Singular, so that neither *wast* nor *were* can unite consistently with it.

Without. Preposition, signifying here *not with*, or *not having*. See Page 138.

Form. Noun Substantive Singular, which may be considered as of the Accusative Case depending on the Preposition *about*; and this by the second Part of the 16th Rule, at Page 102.

To Prepositions not themselves the Signs Of Cases, Use th'Accusative Case subjoins.

But this Rule is not necessary, except with Regard to the Pronouns personal mentioned under that Rule, and the Relative *who*: For no other Words in English have a grammatic Accusative Form.

And. Conjunction Copulative, as before.

Void. Noun Adjective, referred to the common Word *was* by the Conjunction *and*: For the Expression without Form, is already referred to *was*. This is by Rule 31, at Page 126, mentioned above.

The Copulative Conjunctions may connect Like Cases, Moods, and Tenses, which respect Some common Word, or may, to suit the Sense, Affect a different Mood, or Case, or Tense, &c.

And. Conjunction copulative, joining the foregoing Sentence with the following. See Page 76.

Darkness. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case, Singular Number, and comes before the Verb *was*.

Was. Verb Neuter Substantive, Indicative Mode, first Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative *Darkness*, by the Rule of Concord, at Page 87. In personal Construction, &c.

Upon. Preposition, denoting here *close to the upper Surface*. See Page 141.

The Face. Noun Substantive of the first Variety : For
the Plural is *Faces*. By Rule I. at Page 24.

Es is the Plural of the silent *e*,

Preceded by an *s*, *z*, *c*, or *g*.

It depends on the Preposition *upon*.

Of the Deep. Adjective used as a Substantive, by the
Figure Enallage. See Page 150. It is of the Genitive
Case, Singular Number, and depends on the foregoing
Substantive *the Face*. By Rule XIII. Page 96.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen

On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.

For here *the Face* is a *Part*, and *the Deep* is the *Whole*,
which it belongs ; and every Part supposes a *Whole* ; so
Part and *Whole* are in *Correlation* to each other. See
Page 96.

And. Conjunction Copulative, as before.

The Spirit. Noun Substantive, Singular Number, and
Third Person, and comes before the Verb *moved*.

Of God. Noun Substantive, Genitive Case, Singular
Number, and depends on the foregoing Substantive, *the
Spirit* ; by Rule XIII. as before.

For there is a Correlation between *God* and his
Spirit, similar to that of *Cause* and *Effect*.

Moved. Verb Active Regular, Indicative Mood, first
Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and
agrees with the Nominative Case *Spirit*, by the first
Agreement. *In personal Construction, &c.*

Upon. Preposition, as before.

The Face. Noun Substantive, Singular Number, and
depends on the Preposition *upon*.

Of

Of the Waters. Noun Substantive Regular; of the Genitive Case, Plural Number, and depends on the Substantive *the Face*, by Rule Rule XIII.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen
On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.

For *the Face* and *the Waters* are in the same Kind of Correlation, as the Part and the Whole.

Ver. 3. *And.* Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences. See Page 76.

God. Noun Substantive Regular, of the Nominative Case Singular, and comes before the Verb *said*.

Said. Verb Active, Irregular, of the third Sort of the second Clas. Page 65. For the last Vowely of the Imperfect Root, *say* is changed into *i*; in the Indefinite Root *said*; and in the Perfect or Passive Root, *said*; but not in *saying*, because *i* is never placed before *ing*. See Page 51. It is of the Indicative Mood, first Person, Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative Case *God*, by the first Concourse in personal Construction, &c.

Let there be. Verb Substantive, used impersonally i. e. so that the Substantive which governs the Verb stands behind it: For the Expression is equivalent to *Light be, and Light was.* See the Observation at the Bottom of Page 118.

The Verb is in the Imperative Mood, Present Tense, and in Terms of Grammar is said to be put impersonally.

Light. Noun Substantive of the Accusative Case, Singular Number, depending on *let*, and governing the Verb *be*, by the Observation above-mentioned, at Page 118.

And. Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

There was. Verb Substantive, used impersonally, by Rule XXVII. abovementioned. i. e.

Impersonals, if form'd by *there*, receive

The Number of a following Nom'native.

For if the Plural, *Lights*, could have been used, the Expression must have been, *and there WERE Lights*. i. e. the Verb must have been of the Plural Number to have suited the Number of *Lights*.

Ver. 4. *And.* Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

God. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case Singular, the Head comes before the Verb *saw*.

Saw. Verb Active irregular, of the fifth Class, and last Sort. The Rule is *see, saw, seen*. Page 69. It is in the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Singular number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative God. By the first Concord.

The Light. Noun Substantive, here determined by *the* be the same Light which is mentioned above. It is the Accusative Case Singular, and depends on the Transitive *saw*: For the Light is *that which was*. This is by Rule XVI. Page 102.

The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer On Nouns, which in th'Accusative appear.

That. Casual or Sentential Demonstrative. See Page

For that it was good is equivalent to the Expression at P. *good*. i. e. *God saw the Light to be good*; or, *that*

the Light was good. See the last Observation on the 26th Rule, at Page 117. i. e. the Observation on

Or if what should be Nom'native becomes
Accusative, &c.

It is to be observed, that *saw the Light that it was good*, is not according to the English Idiom ; but according to that of the Hebrew or Greek, out of which the Scriptures are translated. The two English Forms which express the same Sense are set down above.

It. Pronoun Personal. The Antecedent is *Light*, therefore the Pronoun is of the Neuter Gender, Singular Number, and third Person, because *Light* is so. See Page 32. This is by the third Concord, which is Rule IX. at Page 90.

Pronouns to Antecedents must refer,

Their Gender, Number, and their Person bear.

The Pronoun *it* is here of the Nominative Case, and comes before the Verb *was*.

Was. Verb Substantive, of the Indicative Mood, Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative *it*. By the first Concord.

Good. Noun Adjective, depending on *was*, and thereby referred to the Pronoun *it*. This is by the second Concord, which is the second Part of Rule V. Page 89.

Before their Substantives our Speech applies
Those Adjectives which nothing modifies,
Adverbs excepted : But removes behind,
When other Words dependent are subjoin'd.

And. Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

God. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case Singular, and comes before the Verb *divided*.

Divided. Verb Active Regular, of the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative God. By the first Concord.

The Light. Noun Substantive, of the Accusative Case singular, and follows the Verb Transitive *divided*. By Rule XVI. Page 102.

The Active Verbs their passive States transfer
On Nouns, which in th'Accusative appear.

From the Darkness. Noun Substantive, Ablative Case singular, and depends on the Verb *divided*. By Rule XVIII. Page 104.

The Ablatives by *from* as Names we use
Of Limits whence the Mind a State pursues.

For *Darkness* expresses the Object whence the Light was seperated; the Definite Article *the* is used here to shew that the Darkness is determined, as having been spoke of before.

Verse 5. *And.* Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

God. Noun Substantive, Nominative Case Singular, and comes before the Verb *called*.

Called. Verb Active Regular, Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative God. By the first Concord. *Personal Construction, &c.*

The Light. Noun Substantive, Accusative Case Singular

lar, and follows the Verb Transitive *called*; for the Light is here in the Passive State *was called*. This is by Rule XVI. Page 102.

The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer
On Nouns, which in th'Accusative appear.

Day. Noun Substantive, of the Accusative Case Singular, and, as well as *the Light*, depends on the Verb Transitive *called*. This is by Rule XXIV. Page 113.

Names to intitle or describe design'd
Conceptions rais'd already in the Mind,
By other Names, must the same Cases bear
In which the Names that first are us'd appear, &c.

For *the Light* and *Day* are both Names of one and the same Thing, and are both in the same Passive State *was called*; and therefore, as they both depend on the same Transitive Verb *called*, they are both in the Accusative Case. See the last Observation on Rule XXIV. at Page 114.

And. Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

The Darkness. Noun Substantive, of the Accusative Case Singular, and governed of the Verb *called*, which follows. The regular Order is, *and he called the Darkness Night*. Therefore this is an Instance of Construction by the Figure *Hyperbaton*. See Page 152. For the Accusative Case is usually expressed in English by placing a Substantive immediately after a Transitive Verb. See Rule IV. at Page 85.

He. Pronoun Personal, *God* the Antecedent, therefore it is of the Masculine Gender, Singular Number, and of the third Person (for here God neither speaks nor is spoken to). This is by the third Concord, which is Rule IX. Page 90.

Pronoun

Pronouns to Antecedents must refer,
Their Gender, Number, and their Person bear.
It is of the Nominative Case, and comes before the
Verb called.

Called. Verb Active, &c. as before.

Night. Noun Substantive, Accusative Singular, and
depends on *called*. For it is that which Darkness was
called. Rule XXIV. Page 113. *Names to intitle or de-*
scribe, &c.

And. Conjunction Copulative, joining Sentences.

The Evening and the Morning. Noun Substantives,
coupled by the Conjunction *and*, so as to denote a Plural
Object. See Page 75. The Substantives are both of
the Nominative Case, and come before the Verb *were*.
The Definite Article *the* shews that the Morning and
Evening here spoke of are defined or determined by
being those of the first Day of the Creation.

Were. Verb Neuter Substantive, of the Indicative
Mood, first Preter Tense, Plural Number, and third
Person, and agrees with the Nominative Plural *the Evening*
and the Morning. See the Observation on the first
Concord at the Bottom of Page 88.

The Day. Noun Substantive, Nominative Singular,
depends on the Verb *were*. By Rule XXIV. Page
113. *Names to intitle or describe, &c.*

For *the Day* is intended to describe *the Evening and*
Morning already spoken of, therefore all the Names are
the same Case, which is here the Nominative.

First. Adjective, coalescing with *Day*, and standing im-
mediately

mediately before it. By the second Concord, Rule VIII: Page 89.

Before their Substantives our Speech applies
Those Adjectives which nothing modifies, &c.

LESSON the second.

The 1st Chapter of St. Luke's Gospel.

- Ver. 1. **F**orasmuch as many have taken in Hand set forth in Order, a Declaration of those Things which are most surely believed among us.
2. Even as they delivered them unto us, which from the Beginning were Eye-witnesses and Ministers of the Word.
 3. It seemed good to me also, having had perfect Understanding of all Things from the very first, to write unto thee in Order, most excellent *Theophilus*,
 4. That thou mightest know the Certainty of those Things wherein thou hast been instructed.

Forasmuch as. Causal Conjunction. See Page 75 and 77, at the Bottom. It gives Notice here, that the following Sentence, *many have taken in Hand*, &c. expresses the Cause, or Reason, why it seemed good to St. Luke to write.

Many. Used as a Substantive Plural by the Figure Ellipsis. See Page 150. It is of the Nominative Plural, and comes before the Compound Verb *have taken in Hand*. The Figure Ellipsis is also concerned in this Expression, for *Persons* is to be understood after *many*.

Have taken. Verb Active Irregular, of the 5th Class. See Page 69. The Rule is *take, took, taken*. It is of the

Indicative Mood, second Preter Tense, Plural Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative. By the first Concord, *viz.* Rule VII. Page 87.

In personal Construction, Verbs receive Number and Person from a Nom'native.

In Hand. Is a Substantive of the Singular Number and Ablative Case, and depends on the Verb *have taken*. By Rule XXI. Page 108. *Containing Objects, &c.* but the whole Expression, *have taken in Hand*, may here be considered as one Compound Verb, equivalent to *have undertaken*.

To set forth. Verb Active Irregular, of the first Class, page 63. For its three Roots are *set, set, set.* *Forth* is an Adverb in Composition with the Verb *to set*, and signifies *out, or before the Publick*; but is now little used. The Verb is of the Infinitive Mood, Present Tense, and depends on the Verb Transitive, *have taken in Hand*. It is here of the Nature of a Substantive in the Accusative Case; for it denotes *that which has been taken in Hand*. This is by Rule XXV. Page 114.

Th'Infinitive, and what on it depends,
Oft, as a Name, on Nouns and Verbs attends.
This Form may Names of any Case supply, &c.

In Order. Noun Substantive, of the Ablative Singular, and depends on the Verb *to set forth*. By Rule XXI. Page 108. *Containing Objects, &c.*

A Declaration. Noun Substantive, of the Accusative Singular, and depends on the Verb *to set forth*; for the Declaration is in the Passive State *to be set forth*. This is by Rule XVI. Page 102. *The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer, &c.* The Indefinite Article *a* is here used,

used, because the Declaration spoken of is one Declaration among others. See Page 39 for the Import of this Article.

Of Things. Noun Substantive Regular, of the Plural Number and Genitive Case, and depends on the Substantive Declaration. By Rule XIII. Page 96.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen
On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.

For every Declaration supposes something declared, and the Things are that which is declared.

Those. Pronoun Demonstrative, coalescing with Things as its Antecedent. By the third Concord, which is Rule IX. Page 90.

Pronouns to Antecedents must refer,
Their Gender, Number, and their Person bear.

See the Observation on this Concord, at Page 91. The Definite Article *the* might here have been used instead of *those*.

Which. Pronoun Relative to the Antecedent Thing, *Which*, and not *who*, is used here, by Rule X. Page 92.

To Things we *which* apply, to Persons *who*, &c. It is of the Neuter Gender, Plural Number, and third Person, because it's Antecedent *Things* is so. This is by the third Concord mentioned above. But it is of the Nominative Case, and comes before the Verb *are*. This is by Rule XI. at Page 93.

The Relatives are in the Nom'native,
Number and Person, when to Verbs they give, &c.

Are believed. Verb Passive Regular, of the Indicative Mood, Present Tense, Plural Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative *which*. By the first Concord

Most surely. Adverb, of the Superlative Degree. See an Account of the Degrees of Comparison, at Page 29.

Among. Preposition. See Page 135.

Us. Pronoun Personal, St. Luke and others the Antecedent. Therefore as St. Luke is conceived to name himself and others as distinguished by his Act of speaking, he, together with them, is now of the first Person Plural. See Page 32. It is of the Accusative Case, depending on the Preposition *among*. By Rule XVI. 2d Part, Page 102.

To Prepositions, not themselves the Signs

Of Cases, Use th' Accusative subjoins.

Ver. 2. *Even.* Adverb. It signifies here *in the very same Manner*.

As. Restrictive Conjunction. See Page 78. It is equivalent here to *in which*.

They. Pronoun Personal, *Men or Persons* understood is the Antecedent, therefore it is of the Masculine Gender, Plural Number, and third Person. By the third Concord, *Pronouns to Antecedents, &c.* It is of the Nominative Case, and comes before the Verb *delivered*.

Delivered. Verb Active Regular, of the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Plural Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Nominative *they*. By the 2d Concord, *In personal Construction, &c.*

Them. Pronoun Personal, *Things* the Antecedent; therefore it is of the Neuter Gender, Plural Number, and third Person. By the third Concord, *Pronouns to Antecedents, &c.* It is of the Accusative Case, and depends on the Verb Transitive *delivered*; for it denotes the things which were delivered. This is by Rule XVI.

Page 102. *The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer, &c.*

Unto. Preposition, of the same Meaning as *to*, but now seldom used. See Page 131, at the Bottom.

Us. Pronoun Personal, the Writer and others the Antecedent; therefore, as he is considered as speaking and naming himself with others, the Pronoun is of the first Person Plural. See Page 32. It is of the Accusative Case, and depends on the Preposition *unto*, by the latter Part of Rule XVI. Page 102.

To Prepositions not themselves the Signs
Of Cases, Use th'Accusative subjoins.

Which. Pronoun Relative, *they* the Antecedent. Hence, according to the present Custom of the English Language, *who* should have been used here and not *which*. For Rule X. “To Things we *which* apply, to Persons *who*” is founded on the present Custom. But, when the Scriptures were translated into English, this Distinction was not observed. *Which* is of the Masculine Gender, Plural Number, and third Person, by the third Concord for its Antecedent *they* is so. It is of the Nominative Case, and comes before the Verb *were*.

From the Beginning. Noun Substantive of the Ablative Singular, and depends on the Verb *were*. By Rule XVII. Page 104.

The Ablatives by *from* as Names we use
Of Limits whence the Mind a State pursues.

Were. Verb Substantive of the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Plural Number, and third Person, and agrees with the Relative *which*. By the first Concord.

Eye-witnesſes. Compound Substantive, formed by the Figure Enallage, Page 150; for here the Substantive *Eye* becomes a Kind of Adjective by being linked to *Witnesſes*. It is a Substantive of the third Variety; for its Singular ends in *s*, therefore its Plural is formed by adding the syllable *es*. By Rule III. at Page 24.

C b, s, / b, x and z encrease

Their Plural Forms by each assuming *es*.

It is of the Nominative Plural, depending on the Verb *were*, and is thereby referred to the Nominative *which*: For both *which* and *Eye-witnesſes* are Names of the same Persons. This is by Rule XXIV. Page 13.

Sometimes no Verb like Cases comes between, But the Verb Substantive may intervene, &c.

And. Conjunction Copulative, joining Words. For here it refers *Ministers* to the common Word *were*, to which *Eye-witnesſes* is already referred. This is by Rule XXXI. Page 126.

The Copulative Conjunctions may connect Like Cases, Moods, and Tenses, which respect Some common Word, &c

For here *Eye-witnesſes* and *Ministers* are both of the Nominative Case.

Of the Word. Noun Substantive, of the Genitive Singular, depending on the Substantives *Eye-witnesſes* and *Ministers*. By Rule XIII. Page 96.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen

On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.

For here *the Word* is that which is *witnessed* and *ministered*. i. e. it is in the States which are correlative to *witnesſing* and *ministring*, that are in *Witnesses* and *Ministers*. The Definite Article *the* is here used to give Notice, that

that *the Word* spoken of is not one Sort of *Word* amongst others, but the particular Doctrine of the Christian Religion.

The Order of Words in this Verse is by the Figure Hyperbaton. See Page 152. For the simple Order is “Even as they which from the Beginning were Eye-witnesses and Ministers of the Word delivered them unto us”, and this Order is more distinct and intelligible than the other. For in the other, *which* seems to be referred to *us*, as its Antecedent, whereas it is really referred to *they*.

Ver. 3. *It seemed.* Verb Active Regular, here used impersonally. This is by Rule XXVII. Page 117.

The English Verbs impersonal appear
Plac'd in Dependence, or on *it* or *there*—
Those form'd by *it*, to Singulars confin'd,
A Sentence often take by *that* subjoin'd,
Or Verb Infinitive, or any Train
Of Words which in Effect a Nom'native contain.

For here the Particle *it* gives Notice that the Infinitive Verb *to write*, with its dependent Words *unto thee in Order*, supplies the Place of one Substantive in the Nominative Case to the Verb *seemed*; for *to write unto thee in Order*, expresses that *which seemed good*. The Verb is of the Indicative Mood, first Preter Tense, Singular Number, and third Person, and, in Terms of Grammar, is said to be put impersonally.

Good. Adjective, depending on *it seemed*, and thereby united with *to write unto thee in Order*, as if these latter Words were one Noun Substantive.

To me. Pronoun Personal, the Writer the Antecedent. It is of the first Person, for the Writer is conceived

Re speak and name himself. (See Page 32) Singular Num-
ber and Dative Case. By Rule XV. Page 100.

The Limits whither States or Objects tend,
In Names of Dative Forms, on Nouns and Verbs at-
tend.

Also. Conjunction Adverb, signifying here that St.
like considers himself as united with others in writing
in the present Subject. See Page 74.

Having had. Participle Coalescent of the Verb *to have*,
uniting as an Adjective with *to me*. It is of the Past or
Perfect Tense, for it signifies *the understanding as compleat-*
bad or gained.

Understanding. Noun Substantive of the Accusative
singular, and depends on the Participle Transitive *having had*, for the *Understanding* is considered as *having*
had. This is by Rule XXIX. Page 125.

Whate'er dependent Case a Verb may claim,
Its Participle may command the same.

Of all Things. *Of Things* is a Noun Substantive Re-
ular, of the Genitive Case Plural, depending on the Sub-
stantive *Understanding*. By Rule XIII.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen,
On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.

For the *Things* are in the State *understood*, which is cor-
relative to *Understanding*. *All* is an Adjective, coalescing
with *Things*, and standing immediately before it. By
the Second Concord, which is Rule VIII. Page 89.

Before their Substantives our Speech applies
Those Adjectives which nothing modifies, &c.

From the very First. *From the First* is an Adjective
used as a Substantive by the Figure Enallage, see Page

150, or by Ellipsis, for *beginning* is understood. It is of the Ablative Singular, and depends on the Verb *having had*. By Rule XVIII. Page 104.

The Ablatives by *from* as Names we use
Of Limits whence the Mind a State pursues.

Very is an Adverb coalescing with *First*, and signifying that the Expression is to be taken in the strictest Sense.

To write. Verb Active Irregular of the third Class. Its Roots are *write*, *wrote*, *written*, see Page 67. It is Objective, and of the Infinitive Mood, Present Tense, and supplies the Place of a Nominative Case to the Verb *seemed*, as has been observed above.

Unto. Preposition, see Page 131.

Thee. Pronoun Personal, of the second Person (for the Person addressed is its Antecedent) Singular Number, and Accusative Case, depending on the Preposition *unto*. By Rule XVI. Page 102.

To Prepositions not themselves the Signs
Of Cases, Use th'Accusative subjoins.

In Order. Noun Substantive Regular, of the Ablative Singular, and depends on the Verb *to write*. By Rule XXI. Page 108. *Containing Objects, &c.*

Most excellent. Adjective of the Superlative Degree (see Page 29) and coalesces with the Substantive *Theophilus*, before which it is immediately placed. This is by the Second Concord, Rule VIII. Page 89.

Before their Substantives our Speech applies
Those Adjectives which nothing modifies.

Theophilus. Noun Substantive proper, of the Vocative Case Singular, (for it is the Name of a Person addressed consequently,

consequently it is of the Second Person; and as it unites with the Sentence as a constituent Part of it, the Pronoun of the Second Person *thee* is used with it. See Pages 103 and 104 for an Account of the precise Nature of the Vocative Case, and of this Kind of Construction.

Verse 4. *That*, Casual or Sentential Demonstrative, giving Notice that the whole Sentence, *thou mightest now, &c.* is to be considered in effect as one Substantive of the Ablative Case, shewing the Cause or Reason why the Apostle writes to Theophilus. This is by Rule XXVI. Page 116.

The Casual *That* whole Sentences may place
As a Noun Substantive in any Case.

Thou. Pronoun Personal, the Person addressed the Antecedent; therefore it is of the Masculine Gender, Singular Number, and second Person. By the Third Concord, which is Rule IX. Page 90.

Pronouns to Antecedents must refer
Their Gender, Number, and their Person bear.
It is of the Nominative Case, and comes before the Verb *mightest know*.

Mightest know Verb Irregular, of the Fifth Class. Its Roots are *know, knew, known*. See Page 70. It is of the Potential Mood, First Indefinite Tense, Singular Number, and second Person, and agrees with the Nominative *thou*. By the First Concord.

The Certainty. Noun Substantive of the second Variety, for its Plural is *Certainties*. By Rule 2. Page 24.

Y final, not in Diphthongs us'd, supplies
Its Plural by the Termination *ies*.
It is of the Accusative Singular, and depends on the Verb Transitive *mightest know*; for it expresses that
which

which might be known. This is by Rule XVI. Page 102. *The Active Verbs their Passive States transfer, &c.* the Definitive Article *the* shews that the Certainty spoke of is not every Kind of Certainty, but that which is in those Things wherein, &c.

Of those Things. *Of Things*, Noun Substantive Regular, of the Genitive Plural, depending on the Substantive Certainty. By Rule XIII. Page 96.

The Genitives are in Dependence seen
On Nouns, when Correlations intervene.
For Certainty supposes something in which it appears.

Those. Is a Pronoun Demonstrative, and coalesces with its Antecedent *Things*. By the Third Concord, Rule IX. Page 90.

Pronouns to Antecedents must refer
Their Gender, Number, and their Person bear.
So that *those* is of the Neuter Gender, Plural Number, and third Person, because *Things* is so. See the Observation on this Rule at Page 91.

Wherein. Relative Adverb, equivalent to *in which*. Example

Thou. Pronoun Personal, the Person addressed the Antecedent; therefore it is of the Masculine Gender, Singular Number, and second Person by the Third Concord. Pronouns to Antecedents, &c. It is of the Nominate Case, and comes before the Verb *hast been instructed*.

Hast been instructed. Verb Passive Regular, of the Indicative Mood, Second Preter Tense, Singular Number, and second Person, and agrees with the Nominate *thou*. By the First Concord, *In personal Construction*, &c.

Thus

Thus it appears that the English Language is effectually reduced to Rule in the foregoing Grammar. It may perhaps appear tedious at the first to resolve it in this Manner, and to account for the Construction of every Word, and for the Irregularities of every Word that happens to have any. But, if the Grammar be well understood by the Master, and the Scholar have the Rules by Heart, a great deal may be dispatched in half an Hour, as will appear upon Trial; and a Child may attend half an Hour at a Time without being too much wearied. Yet, at the first, the Lessons may be shortened at the Discretion of the Teacher.

It likewise appears from hence, that the Resolution of English in this Manner, will be laying a good Foundation for the Knowledge of the Grammar of any other Language.

Examples of False English, to be rectified by the Rules.

I have observed in the Preface, that Examples of this Kind are not quite proper for Learners who are very young; but that they may be of Service to those more advanced in Years, who have contracted Habits from Custom of writing or speaking ungrammatically; I have therefore added a few Examples for the Use of such Persons. The Examples are chiefly taken from the Scriptures and the first Papers of the Spectator. All the Places are quoted, that the Learner may turn to each, if he does not see where the Mistake lies, or cannot rectify it by the Rule.

*Faults against the Rules at Pages 24 and 25, concerning
the Formation of the Plural of Substantives.*

He behaved himself with great Gallantry at several Siegs. (Rule 1.) *Spectat.* No. 1.

Excepting in the public Exerciss of the College I scarce uttered a hundred Words. (1.) *Ibid.*

Upon the Death of my Father I resolved to travel into foreign Countrys. (2.) *Ibid.*

Our Club only meets on Tuesdaies and Thursdaies (2.) *Ibid.*

He can inform you from which of the French King's Wenchs (3.) our Wifes (4.) and Daughters had this Manner of curling their Hair. No. 2.

One who is hastening to the Object of all his Wilhs, (3.) and conceives Hope from his Decaies and Infirmitys (2.) *Ibid.*

Faults in the Comparison of Adjectives that end in y, contrary to the Observation at Page 29.

He that cometh after me is mightyer than I. St. Mat. ch. iii. ver. 11.

— Thou best

And lovelyest of thy Sex! *Addis. Cato,* Act 3. Scene 2.

— to mix

Taste after Taste, upheld by kindlyest Change.

Milton's Par. lost.

Faults in the Formation of the Participles, contrary to the Observations at Pages 51 and 52.

The chief trouble of compileing will fall to my Share. *Spectat.* No. 1.

I have made myself a speculative Statesman, &c. without ever meddleing with any practical Part in Life.

Ibid.

They

They may make their Entrance so as to be seen flinging
in a Lady's Bed-Chamber. No. 5.

He is studiing the Passions themselves. No. 2.

This may be attributed to the Folly of admiting Wit
and Learning as Merit in themselves. No. 6.

The Lady seeing me quiting my Knife and Fork and
flaing them across. *Ibid.*

*Faults in the Formation of the thrid Person singular, of
the present Tense of the Indicative Mood, contrary to the
Observations at Pages 72 and 73.*

I have obserued that a Reader seldom peruss a Book
with Pleasure till he knows, &c. No. 1.

She thinks Life lost in her own Family, and fancy's
herself out of the World. No. 15.

She pitys all the valuable Part of her own Sex. *Ibid.*
A Birth-Day furnishs Conversation for a Twelve-
month. *Ibid.*

Aurelia pass away a great Part of her Time in her
own Walks and Gardens. *Ibid.*

*Faults in the Order of placing Words contrary to the six
first Rules of Syntax. See Pages 83 to 87.*

Have obserued I (I.) that a Book (IV.) seldom pe-
nishes a Reader (I.) with Pleasure, till knows he (I.) whe-
ther of it (III.) the Writer be a black or fair Man.

Spectat. No. 1.
To gratify this Curiosity is which (V.) so natural to
Reader, I design this Paper and my next as prefatory
Discourses to my following Writings, and shall give some
account in them of the several Persons are engaged (V.)
that in this Work. *Ibid.*

The History (IV.) knows he of every Mode, and can
inform you from which of the Wenches French King's

(III.) our Wives and Daughters had this Manner of curling their Hair.

Faults against the first Concord, which is Rule VII. p. 87.

Man are said to be a sociable Animal. *Spectat.* No. 9.
I knows a considerable Market-Town, &c. *Ibid.*

The folding Doors was immediately thrown open. *Ib.*
I is now settled with a Widow Woman. No. 12.

She have likewise modelled her Family so well, that
when her little Boy offer to pull me by the Coat, &c. *Ib.*

The Mistress scoldest at the Servants. *Ibid.*

If you hast kept various Company you knows, &c.
No. 24.

You plainly insinuatest that * Signior Grimaldi and
* I * has a Correspondence. No. 16.

Because thou has done this, thou is cursed above all
Cattle. *Genesis, chap. iii. ver. 14.*

Faults against the second Concord, Rule VIII. Page 89.

I have passed Years my latter in this City. *Spectat.*
No. 1.

It is Pity that Discoverys (Page 24) many so should
be in the Possession of Man a silent. *Ibid.*

The Pain greatest I can suffer is the being talked to.
Ibid.

In the Examples above the Adjectives should stand before their Substantives.

His noble and generous Notions of Trade are. No. 2.
It tedious wculd be to describe their Habits and Per-
sons. *Ibid.*

* See the Observation near the End of Page 88.

As insignificant I am to the Company in public Places.

Spectat. No. 4.

Extravagantly lavish an Opera may be allowed to be in its Decorations. No. 5.

In these Examples the Adjectives should be placed behind the Verbs that depend on the Substantives.

These Examples, and those given under Rules I. to VI. shew the great Consequence of observing the due Order of Position in English.

Faults against the thir'd Concord, Rule IX. Page 90.

When my Mother was gone with Child of me about three Months, he dreamt that he was brought to-bed of a Judge. No. 1.

As for the rest of my Infancy, I shall pass them over in Silence. *Ibid.*

I have passed my latter Years in these City. *Ibid.*
I shall give an Account of this Gentlemen who are concerned with me in these Work. *Ibid.*

Their Name is Sir Roger de Coverley; thy Great Grandfather was the Inventor of the famous County-Dance which is called after me. No. 2.

His Singularities proceed from our good Sense. *Ibid.*

Faults in the Use of who and which, contrary to Rule X.

Page 92.

To gratify this Curiosity who is so natural to a Reader. No. 1.

No. 2. There are very few celebrated Books whom I am not acquainted with. *Ibid.*

We have amongst us the gallant Will Honeycomb, a Gentleman which, according to his Years, should be in the Decline of his Life. No. 2.

There

'There sat at her Feet a Couple of Secretaries, which received every Hour Letters from all Parts of the World.
Spectat. No. 3.

Faults in the Case of the Relative who, contrary to Rule XI.
Page 93.

All whom know that Shire are well acquainted with the Parts and Merits of Sir Roger. No. 2.

She had received the Addresses of a Gentleman, who, after a long and intimate Acquaintance, she forsook. No. 15.

Three Parts of those who I reckon among the Litigious are such as are only quarrelsome in their Hearts. No. 21.

There are none to who this Paper will be more useful than to the Female World. No. 10.

Faults in the Use of the Relative that, contrary to Rule XII.
Page 94.

I am not so vain as to think it presaged any Dignity at that I should arrive. No. 1.

There is another Set of Men to that I must lay claim. No. 10.

All for that I would contend is, to keep the Handkerchief from being misapplied. No. 44.

Faults against the Regimen of the Cases.

They would draw I out of that Obscurity which me have enjoyed for many Years, and expose I in public Places, to several Salutes and Civilities. (Rule XVI.)
Spectat. No. 1.

This Humour creates he no Enemies. (Rule XVI.) No. 2.

She often smiled with a secret Pleasure when she looked upon them. (Rule XVI.) *Spectat.* No. 3.

It is difficult to shew the Misapplication of the Signs of the Cases without making the Words utterly unintelligible. Nevertheless I have given a Sentence or two of the Beginning of the first Spectator, with the Signs changed as below.

I have observed that a Reader seldom peruses a Book from Pleasure, (Rule XX.) till he knows whether the Writer with it (Rule XIII.) be a black or fair Man, by mild (Rule XIII.) or choleric Disposition, married, or Bachelor; in other Particulars (Rule XX.) to the like Nature, (Rule XIII.) that conduce very much with the right Understanding (Rule XV.) for an Author (Rule XIII.) To gratify this Curiosity which is so natural than a Reader, (Rule XV.) I design this Paper and my next as prefatory Discourses in my following Writings. (Rule XV.)

Faults against Rule XXIV. concerning Substantives in like Cases.

The first of our Society is a Gentleman, of a Baronet, Name to Sir Roger de Coverley. *Spectat.* No. 2.

He is in a Gentleman that is very singular. *Ibid.*

She shall be called for Woman. *Genesis,* chap. 2.

¶ 23.

Faults against Rule XXVII. and the Observations upon Pages 117 to 120, concerning the Application of it and are with Definitive Verbs.

XVI.) As for the rest of my Infancy, it being nothing remarkable in it, I shall pass it over in Silence. *Spectat.*

I made there my Businesse these three Days; to listen after my own Fame. *Spectat.* No. 4.

There is, for this Reason, that I keep my Complexion and Dress as great Secrets. No. 1.

It are three very material Points which I have not spoken to in this Paper. *Ibid.*

Faults against Rule XXVIII. concerning the Use of the second Preter Tense, with Names of Time.

As I have been walking in the Streets about a Fortnight ago. *Spectat.* No. 5.

Sir Roger has said, last Night, that none but Men of fine Parts deserves to be hanged. No. 6.

Faults against the Rule at Page 121, concerning the Use of shall and will.

As the chief Trouble of compiling, and digesting, and correcting, shall fall to my Share, I must do myself the Justice to open the Work with my own History. *Spectat.* No. 1.

As for other Particulars in my Life and Adventures I shall insert them in the following Papers as I will see Occasion. *Ibid.*

This I know shall be Matter of great Rallery to small Wits. No. 10.

If we look into the Profession of Physic we will find most formidable Body of Men.

If you understand any other Language which your Scholar understands, you may easily translate Portions from it into false English, and oblige your Scholar to find out the Faults, and rectify them by the Rules: As this is probably as effectual a Method of teaching Foreigners English as any that can be taken.

INTRODUCTION.

THE Writers on Grammar have distinguished the Words of which Language consists into eight or nine different Sorts. They have called these Sorts *the Parts of Speech*, and have given them the Names of NOUN, PRONOUN, VERB, PARTICIPLE, ADVERB, CONJUNCTION, PREPOSITION, INTERJECTION; and to these, in English, we may add THE ARTICLE. This Division of the Parts of Speech has been so long admitted in Grammar, and has been found to be attended with so little Inconvenience, that it is not adviseable to attempt any new Division.

The Noun and the Verb are the principal Parts of speech, to which all the rest are but different Kinds of auxiliaries: And the Reason why they are so will appear in the following Treatise; therefore it is proper to begin with considering the Noun and Verb in one general View, and then to treat of each of the Parts of Speech particular. This I shall do in the Order in which they are set down above, except the Article: For it will be proper to consider it immediately after the Noun and Pronoun; because of the especial Relation which it has to common or appellative Names, and of its Approach in Meaning to that of some of the Pronouns.

As I am under a Necessity of using the Words *Object*, and *Coalescent Circumstance*, in a Sense somewhat peculiar;

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it is necessary to give Notice, that by *an Object* is meant, in the following Treatise, not only whatsoever produces an Image in the Eye whence the Conception thereof is conveyed to the Mind, but likewise whatsoever produces any Sensation, or gives Occasion to any internal Conception, such as that the Mind can confine its Attention to that Conception only:

And that by *a Coalescent Circumstance*, is meant such as unites with an Object without increasing the Number of the Object.

SECTION I.

Of the Noun and Verb in general.

Definitions.

No. 1. **NOUNS** denote *Objects*, or *Coalescent Circumstances*, without including the Character of beginning, continuing, ending, being renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion of Discourse.

No. 2. Verbs denote *States of being*, which may be considered either as *Objects*, or *Coalescent Circumstances*, including the Character of beginning, continuing, ending, being renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion of Discourse.

These Definitions shew the Difference between the Conception annexed to any Sort of Noun in any of its Forms, and that annexed to any Sort of Verb in any of its Forms whatsoever; as will appear fully in what follows.

Now

Nouns are of two Kinds, the *Noun Substantive* and the *Noun Adjective*. The Noun Substantive may either denote an Object, or a Coalescent Circumstance. It denotes an Object when it stands single; as, *Virtue*, *Vice*; or with an Article prefixed; as, *a Man*, *the Woman*; or when it is the principal Word of a Series, and the rest of the Words depend on it. Thus, *God* is a Noun Substantive, and it denotes an Object in the Expressions *God*, or *the God*; **THE GOD of Wisdom**, &c.

But if a Substantive depends on some other Word, it then denotes a Coalescent Circumstance. Thus, *the Son of God*, denotes but one Son; and *to be WITH GOD*, denotes but one State of *Being*; therefore of *God*, *with God*, although they are grammatical Forms of the Substantive *God*, yet now denote only *Coalescent Circumstances*.

The Noun Adjective denotes a Coalescent Circumstance only; as, **THE GOOD God**, **A WISE Man**: For here, although *Goodness* is represented as united with *God*, and *Wisdom* with some *Man*, yet the Number of Objects is no ways increased in the Conception that is denoted by either of the Expressions, as it would be in *God and Goodness*, *a Man and Wisdom*; therefore the Adjectives *good* and *wise*, denote *Goodness* and *Wisdom*, considered as *Coalescent Circumstances*; and so of other Instances.

If several Objects, denoted by Substantives, are taken together, and considered as *an aggregate Object*, (i. e. as they are considered when the Substantives are united by the Conjunction *and*) the Conception of a Complex Object will be expressed, in which the constituent Objects may be counted by the Numbers *one*, *two*, *three*, &c. as *Good and Goodness* denotes two Objects; *a Man, and Goodness*.

Goodness, and Virtue, denotes three Objects ; and so of other Instances. Hence it is manifest that the Conceptions of these Objects are separately ascertained in the Intellect (i. e. so that the Mind can confine its Attention to any of them singly) : For otherwise, the Objects, as denoted by these Conceptions, could not be thus counted : Yet these Objects cannot be counted by the Numbers of Repetition, *once, twice, thrice, &c.* For such Expressions as *Goodness, or Virtue, once, twice, thrice, &c.* are absurd : Therefore it is likewise manifest, that Objects, when denoted by Substantives, are not considered as invested with the Character of *beginning, ending, being renewed or repeated, so as to suit any Occasion of Discourse.*

If several States, denoted by Verbs in the Infinitive Mood, or by the English Participles, are considered in the Aggregate, the Number will be increased ; as, *to be and to think*, denotes two States ; and *being, and thinking, and speaking*, denotes three States ; and so of other Instances : Therefore the Conceptions annexed to these Forms of the Verb are separately ascertained in the Intellect, as well as the Conceptions which are denoted by Substantives : But the States *to be, or being ; to think, or thinking*, may be counted by the Numbers *once, twice, thrice, &c.* therefore it is evident that the States denoted by Verbs are considered as invested with the Character of *beginning, ending, being renewed or repeated, so as to suit any Occasion of Discourse.*

The Coalescent Circumstances which are denoted either by dependent Substantives, or by Adjectives, neither increase the Number of the Object with which they coalesce, nor represent it as in an occasional State ; therefore these Circumstances can neither be counted by

the Numbers *one, two, three, &c.* nor can an Object, denoted by a Substantive, when in these Circumstances, be counted by the Numbers *once, twice, thrice*: Thus, in the Expressions, *a Man of Industry, an industrious Man*; that is denoted by *of Industry* and *industrious* occasions increase of Number in the Conception that is signified by either of the Expressions: Nor can you consistently say *a Man of Industry, or an industrious Man, once, twice, thrice, &c.* therefore *of Industry*, and *industrious*, neither denote Objects separately considered, nor occasional States of Being: But if you make the Participles *being, having been*, dependent on a Substantive, as in the Expressions *such a Thing being, having been*, you may represent the Thing as *being, or having been, once, twice, thrice, &c.* without any Absurdity. This arises altogether from the Nature of the verbal States *being, having been*, which now unite with the Object, *a Thing*; and as the same Property attends the Infinitive Forms *to be, to have been*, it is clear that the Property of the States denoted by these verbal Forms is, that they may be conceived as *begun, ended, renewed, and repeated*, so as to suit every Occasion of Discourse. Now every Verb may be reduced into the Verb *to be*, with other Words in Dependence on it; (as, *to do, to suffer*, are of the same Import with *to be doing, to be suffering*; and so of other Verbs) therefore this capital Property of the Verb *to be*, is found in every Verb; and this is the essential Property which distinguishes the Conception denoted, either by a Verb or Participle, from that denoted by a Noun Substantive in any of its Forms, or by a Noun Adjective.

All the grammatic Forms by which the Verb differs from a Noun Substantive or Adjective, are the Consequences of this single Property or Character of the States denoted

denoted by Verbs, as will be made fully evident in the following Treatise: And the Determination given above, of the precise Nature of the Conceptions annexed to Nouns, and of those annexed to Verbs, affords sufficient Principles for explaining exactly all the Parts of Speech (i. e. for shewing the *Reasons why* they have their several Powers) as likewise for shewing the *Reason* of every Proceeding in the connected Construction of Words, which will appear in the following Treatise. This Determination never was given before by any Writer on Grammar: And therefore no Writer has fully succeeded in the *Theory* of his Art.

Of the Noun Substantive in particular.

No. 3. Noun Substantives are the Names of Objects so distinguished by fixed or habitual Marks or Characters, that the Conceptions of the Objects are ascertained in the Intellect, without including the occasional Capacity above described; but including the Capacity of denoting Coalescent Circumstances, by various Modes of discursive Operation of the Mind of Man.

Seeing every single Substantive is the Name of an Object, as that Object is represented by a Conception which is separately ascertained in the Intellect; any Substantive is compleat Sense if mentioned alone: For whatsoever Conception is separately ascertained in the Intellect, and annexed to a Name, must instantly recollect to the Mind of every Person who has once formed an Idea; or annexed it to the Name, and this by meer Recollection whensoever the Name is mentioned: So that no additional discursive Act is required in the Person who hears the Name mentioned, to apprehend the Meaning of it, and therefore no connective Notice is necessary to direct

any additional discursive Act: But if a Substantive is made to denote a Coalescent Circumstance, some Notice must be given of a new discursive Act, which is performed by the Speaker, and must be repeated by the Hearer, in order to reduce the Object which the Substantive denotes to a Coalescent Circumstance. This has given Pro-
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in these Names to each of which such a Conception is annexed, that it may equally represent *any Object of a certain Kind*; or of a certain Species, as it is usually called.
Thus the Conceptions annexed to the Names *a Man, a Woman, a Virtue, a Vice*, may respectively denote *any Man or any Woman, any Virtue or any Vice*; and of other Instances. Hence an Object, expressed by one of these common Names, is only distinguished by it from

Of the different Kinds of Noun Substantives.

Substantives are of two Kinds, *the Proper*, and *the Common, or Appellative.*

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Thus the Conceptions annexed to the Names *a Man, a Woman, a Virtue, a Vice*, may respectively denote *any Man or any Woman, any Virtue or any Vice*; and of other Instances. Hence an Object, expressed by one of these common Names, is only distinguished by it from

from an Object that is expressed by some other Name, except in being conceived as a separate Object, subject to Number: For this Property supposes that it is capable of being distinguished from other Objects, which may any of them be called by the same common Name. Hence it is manifest, that only such Marks or Characters of Distinction as are found in *every Object of a certain Species* are included in the common or appellative Name of the Species. When a Conception is thus formed and annexed to a Name, if any Object of the Species occurs, the Name instantly occurs to the Mind with it by meer Recollection: And if the Name is mentioned, the Conception occurs instantly to the Mind, which will represent *any Object of the Species*. The Marks of Distinction which are included in the Conception, may, I think, be called *the Characteristic of the Species*: For if any Society of Men were to agree to set a certain Mark on many Objects, and to call every Object which had the Mark on it by one and the same Name, this Name would be a common or appellative Name: And it is manifest, that all Objects, with the Mark on them, would be of the Species to which the Name belonged; and that the Mark would be the Characteristic of the Species. If we suppose farther, that some Part of the Mark were set upon many more Objects, and it were agreed to call every Object which had either the whole Mark, or any Part of it, by some one and the same Name different from the former; it is equally clear, that the latter Name would likewise be a common or appellative Name, and that the Species to which it belonged would comprehend all the Objects of the former Species, and many more: For not only those which have the whole Mark belong to it, but likewise all those which have any Part of the Mark. It is by a Proceeding much of the same

ame Nature, that one Species is made to comprehend several others: Thus, the Species *Animal*, for Instance, made to comprehend the Species *Man*, and many others: For the Characteristic of the Species *Animal* is only Part of the Characteristic of the Species *Man*; and therefore the former Species includes many more Objects than the latter: For every *Beast*, *Bird*, *Fish*, *Reptile*, *Insect*, has so much of the Characteristic of the Species *Man*, as is the Characteristic of the Species *Animal*; and therefore all these, together with all Men, are of the same Species; and of Consequence any one of them, as well as any Man, may be called *an Animal*. It easily appears from hence how it comes to pass in Language, that several different Objects may be called by one and the same Name; and likewise, that one and the same Object may be called by several different Names: For as several very different Objects may each of them have the Characteristic of one and the same Species, they may each of them be called by the Name of that Species; as every living Creature, for Instance, that has bodily Organs, may be called *an Animal*: And on the other Hand, one and the same Object may have the Characteristics of several Species in it; and if so, it may be called by the Names of all these Species: Thus, the same Man, N. N— for Instance, is of the Species *Creature*, *Animal*, *Son*; and perhaps of the Species *Father*, *Brother*, *Master*, *Subject*, *Neighbour*, &c. and of Consequence may be called by any of these Names; and so of other Instances.

As the Characteristics of many Species are formed from the Arts, Professions, Institutions, &c. of human Life, which are frequently different in different Ages and Communities, it has come to pass that the Characteristics do not correspond exactly with each other in many of

the common or appellative Names of different Languages. And this is one of the principal Reasons why, in many Instances, one Language cannot be translated exactly into another.

The Characteristics of Species must be such Marks as are permanent, or at least habitual, in the Individuals of which the Species consist; for if they were not so, the same Object would be continually shifting from one Species to another; and this would require the Point of Time to be determined when each Object is of a particular Species. It will appear, when we speak of the Pronouns Personal, that the Determination of the Time is necessary with regard to the Objects denoted by them, and that on the Account above-mentioned, *viz* the shifting of one and the same Object from one Person to another, and that frequently in the same Discourse.

The Property of being subject to Number is in the Individuals of every Species of Objects which are denoted by Substantives; and this single Property is the Characteristic of the Species Thing: Therefore this Species is the most general of all, seeing it includes every Individual of every Species.

Of the Numbers of Substantives.

No. 6. Whatsoever is denoted by a Name of Species, is as much subject to Number, as if it were denoted by a proper Name; for the Conception denoted by a common or appellative Substantive is *separately ascertained in the Intellect*, as well as the Conception denoted by a proper Name. If therefore several Individuals of one and the same Species are considered in the Aggregate, the Number will be increased; i. e. the Object will become a *Plural*.

al Object. Hence the Plural grammatic Forms of appellative Substantives are found, in all Languages, to denote an Object which consists of *more Individuals than one, all of the same Sort or Species.*

A Name which was at first a proper Name, may become a common or appellative Name, by being applied to several Objects ; and therefore, although a proper Name, while truly such, i. e. while it is applied to one individual Object, and to no other, can have no absolute Occasion for a Plural Form ; yet it may admit of such Form when it is become an Appellative ; as, *the Cæsars, all the Russias, &c.*

Of the Cases of Substantives.

No. 7. When Substantives are used to denote co-extensive Circumstances, the Property of being *the Object Number* is quite removed from what they signify ; and this by various discursive Proceedings of the Mind of Man. These Proceedings have no particular Names ; but it is evident that they are *the Converses of the abstractive Operations by which the Appearances that present themselves to the Senses or to the Mind at once, are so resolved into Parts, that the Conceptions of these Parts become those of Objects, verbal States, ascertained each by itself in the Intellect.* These Objects seldom or never present themselves separately to the Senses or to the Mind ; for even Men, Animals, Trees, and other visible Objects, are seldom seen without the Earth or Floor on which they stand, and other surrounding Objects : And the States denoted by Verbs are not capable of existing separately from other Objects ; yet the Mind, by its abstractive Faculty, so considers the Objects denoted by Substantives, and the States denoted by the infinitive Forms of Verbs, as to

make first one, and then another, *the Subject of its especial Attention.* As it does this merely for its own Convenience, it undoes its own abstractive Operations whenever the like Convenience requires it, and makes a *Conception of one Object* out of the Conceptions which it has annexed to several Names. The several connective Modes of proceeding, by which it dissolves its abstract Operations, are chiefly given Notice of by the Signs of Cases and Prepositions. Hence, whosoever the same Mode of proceeding is to be used in dissolving the Effect of Abstraction, the same Sign is applied; and very different Relations and Connections, *amongst Objects themselves*, may be pursued by the same Operation so as to unite the Objects which stand in these Relations and Connections into one complex Object, very different Relations and Connections may be denoted by the same Sign; as for Instance, *a Part of the Whole*, *the Kindness of a Friend*; *a Journey TO London*, *a Help TO Distress*; *a Journey FROM London*, *an Exemption FROM Business*; *to be WITH a Friend*, *to work WITH a Tool*; and so of many other Instances, in which the Relations are very different *in themselves*, which are nevertheless given Notice of by the same Sign.

When one objective Conception is to be composed out of those which have been formed by Abstraction and united *with several Names*, it is manifest that mere Recollection will not place such a Conception in the Mind or Intellect, as it would do, if the Conception were denoted by one Name; but a new Act of Judgment must be exerted at the Addition of every Word which denotes a Coalescent Circumstance: Thus if I say *a Field of Corn*, I, in Effect, represent the Field as producing or bearing Corn, and the Corn as produc-

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ut born by the Field: But if I say *the Field of such a Man*, I, in Effect, represent the Field as *possessed* by the Man, and the Man as *possessing* the Field: So that the Sign of is a Reference to the Judgment and Experience of the Hearer; and requires him to exercise them in a particular Manner on the Premises *Field and Corn, Field and Man*; and so of other Instances of the Use of the other Signs of Cases and Prepositions.

I have observed above, that there is no exact Agreement amongst the Names of Species in different Languages: And there is less Agreement in the Application of the Signs of Cases and Prepositions: For a *meér Mode discursive Proceeding* is not easily distinguishable from all others: nor are the Sorts of Relations and Connections easily ascertained which are the proper Objects of each discursive Mode: So that the different Communities of People have estimated *Connections of the same Kind*, by Substantives in *different Cases*: Therefore little more can be done in this most abstruse Part of general Grammar, than to shew the Reason why it is so abstruse: But in the practical Grammar of a particular Language, considerable Help may be given to a Learner, by Rules confirmed by Classes of Examples: For these reduce into a short Compass both the most usual Applications of a particular Sign of a Case, or Preposition, and likewise the principal Instances in which Custom has departed from the more general Forms. Rules of this Kind relating to the English Language are given in the Syntax of the practical Part of this Work.

Of the Genders of Nouns.

No. 8. The Genders of Nouns which occasion so much Trouble in the Latin and Greek, and many of the

the modern Languages, create no Trouble in English; For, in our Language, the Adjectives have no grammatic Variation either of Gender, Number, or Case, as they have in Latin and Greek ; nor of Gender and Number, as they have in French and several other modern Languages. Hence there is little or no Necessity, in English, to regard the Sex of an Object, or the grammatic Gender of it's Name, unless the Object be of the Singular Number and third Person, and likewise to be denoted by a personal or possessive Pronoun : For then any Male must be expressed by *he*, or referred to by *his*; any Female by *she* or *her*; any Object of no Sex, or in which the Sex is not considered, by *it* or *its*. If the Object be Plural, that is to be expressed by a personal or possessive Pronoun of the third Person ; it is done by using *they* or *their*, of whatsoever Sex the Individuals are which constitute the Plural Object.

Of the Noun Adjective.

No. 9. Noun Adjectives denote *abstract Conception*, considered as representing Coalescent Circumstance, and without including the Character of *beginning*, *continuing*, *ending*, *being renewed*, *destroyed*, and *again repeated*, so as to suit any Occasion.

If the Conception denoted by an Adjective be considered without Regard to the Power of the grammatic Form of the Adjective, it will be found the same Conception which is denoted by an Abstract Substantive: Thus the Conceptions expressed by *manly*, *brutish*, *earthly*, are not the same with those denoted by *Man*, *Brutus*, *Earth*; but by the abstract Substantives, *Manliness*, *Brutishness*, *Earthiness*; only the Adjectives express them as Coalescent Circumstances : Whereas the Substantives express

express them as so many Objects separately and completely ascertained in the Intellect : But a Coalescent Circumstance cannot be thus ascertained ; for it must be united with some Object by an Act of discursive Judgment, so as to adapt it thereby to the Nature of the Object with which it coalesces : Thus the Adjective *good* may imply *any Sort of Goodness* : But when it is united with several Substantives, (as *a good Man, a good House, a good Voyage, a good Dish of Meat*) a different Kind of *Goodness* is to be understood in each Expression, and that from Judgment and Experience only. Hence the Sense of an Adjective has no *compleat Being* in the Intellect, till it is actually united with some objective Conception, and adapted properly for such Union by an Act of discursive Judgment, exerted at the making of the Union.

An oblique Case of a Substantive denotes a Circumstance which requires an Act of discursive Judgment to make it coalesce properly with some objective Conception ; and in this it agrees with an Adjective. An oblique Case of a Substantive does not include the occasional Character in that which it denotes ; and in this it likewise agrees with an Adjective ; therefore an Adjective is frequently equivalent to some oblique Case of the Substantive which is contained in its Signification. Thus, *a speedy Horse* is equivalent to *a Horse of Speed* ; *cruel Disposition*, to *a Disposition to Cruelty* ; *a sorrowful Family*, to *a Family in Sorrow* ; and so of very many Instances of other Adjectives ; therefore the Adjective is justly considered in Grammar as a Kind of Noun.

Adjectives equally unite with Substantives in all Cases ; *e, a good Man; of a good Man; to, from, with a good Man.*

Man. They have this Property in common with the oblique Cases of Substantives, and with the coalescent verbal Forms, called *Participles*.

Of the Comparison of Adjectives.

No. 10. As an Adjective denotes a Quality or Circumstance, which has no Principle of Existence in itself, but must coalesce with some other Object; it frequently happens that *a greater or less Degree* of such Quality is observed in the same Object at different Times, or in different Objects at the same Time. Hence, in order to shew the Degree of a Quality which coalesces with an Object, those grammatical Forms have been introduced into Language which are called *the Degrees of Comparison of Adjectives*. The Adjective itself is considered as of the Positive Degree; as, *wise*, *swift*, &c. and when the Adjective in this Degree is united with a Substantive, that Degree of *Wisdom*, *Swiftness*, &c. is expressed by the Adjective, which is *usually* observed in the Sort of Objects that are denoted by the Substantive and Adjective together; as, *a wise Man* denotes a Man possessed of the usual Degree of Wisdom which intitles Men to be considered as *wise*; and so of other Instances.

An Adjective in the Comparative Degree denotes *Wisdom*, *Swiftness*, &c. as in a greater Degree in some Object than is observed or supposed in some other Object; as, *a WISER King than Solomon*: Or in some Object at one Time, than in the same Object at another Time; as, *a Man WISER than he has been*; or as in a greater Degree in one Individual of an Object consisting of two, than in the other of the same Object; as, *the wiser Man of the two, the stronger Horse of the Pair*, &c.

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An Adjective in the *Superlative Degree* denotes *Wisdom*, *Swiftness*, &c. as in the highest Degree of Excess in an Object, when compared with several others of a Class or Set; as, *the WISEST Man of or in the Company*; *the SWIFTEST Horse of the Set*, &c.

A Comparison of Diminution may be made by these Degrees, as well as of Augmentation; as, *small*, *smaller*, *smallest*, &c.

As the English Adjectives have no grammatic Variations of Gender, Number, or Case, which correspond with the like Variations of the Substantives to which they belong; they must be placed as close as possible, either before or behind their Substantives in Construction, to shew their immediate Correspondence: Whereas, in Greek and Latin, the Adjective may be placed remote from its Substantive in almost any Sentence; because their grammatic Correspondence of Termination directs them to be united immediately together in the Mind, although they do not stand immediately together. Hence it appears that, in Greek and Latin, this Correspondence of Termination is only a Kind of *Notice concerning Words themselves*, directing which are to be immediately united together in the Mind, although they are not placed close by each other.

• Of the Pronouns.

These are all of them either Substantive or Adjective Names of Species, which have for their Characteristics certain Circumstances arising in the Use of Language itself, and which extend to all Sorts of Objects.

The Pronouns are of five Sorts, THE PERSONAL, THE POSSESSIVE, THE RELATIVE, THE INTERROGATIVE, and THE DEMONSTRATIVE.

Of the Pronouns Personal.

No. 11. These are the Substantive Names of three different Species, called, by Grammarians, *the first, second, and third Person.*

The Circumstance of *any Speaker's mentioning himself, or himself with others, as distinguished by his Act of speaking,* is the Characteristic of the first Person.

Every single Object of this Species is called **I**; every Plural Object, **we.**

The Circumstance of *any Object being mentioned as distinguished by Words addressed to it,* is the Characteristic of the second Person. Every single Object of this Species is called **thou**, every Plural Object, and every Object considered as Plural, **ye or you.**

All Objects which are neither considered as distinguished by speaking and naming themselves, nor by being named in Words addressed to them, are of the third Person.

Single Objects of this last Species are distinguished into three subordinate Sorts, from the additional Consideration of Sex. Every single Male Object is named **HE**; every single Female, **SHE**; and every single Object of no Sex, or in which the Sex is not considered, is named **IT**: But Plural Objects of this Species are equally named **THEY** in English, without regard to Distinction of Sex.

The Circumstances which constitute the Characteristics of the three personal Species, attend *every Discourse whatsoever;* and therefore, in every Discourse, the Speaker, or Writer, may consider himself as distinguished

ed by the Act of speaking or writing the Discourse ; and if he does so, he may name himself I, in that Discourse : And in every Address, the Object to which *Discourse* is addressed, may be considered as distinguished by such Address ; and of Consequence may be named THOU or you in that Discourse. All Objects may be considered as of either of these Persons : For Beasts, and even inanimate Objects, may be represented as *speaking and naming themselves*, or as *spoken to* ; and frequently are so represented in Fables, Poetry, Oratory, and other Works of Genius ; and all Objects are of the third Person, which are neither considered as distinguished by *speaking or writing, and naming themselves*, nor by *being spoken to, or addressed in Writing* ; and hence it comes to pass that these Pronouns may stand for any Name of any Object whatsoever. But although these personal Species are so extensive, if considered as they relate to *every Discourse*, they are not so as they relate to a particular Discourse : For the same Object cannot be the Speaker or Hearer of more than one Discourse at the same Time ; and if it be carried on by Word of Mouth, the individual Objects are determined which are denoted by I and you in it ; because the very Person who speaks, and the very Person who is spoken to, see and hear each other ; and this demonstrative Circumstance ascertains, at once, the Individual that is meant by I and you : And if the Speaker, by looking at any Object, which neither speaks nor is spoken to, or, by any other demonstrative Act, can make the Hearer observe it particularly, whilst he calls it HE, SHE, or IT, such Object will be effectually distinguished from all other Objects : But when demonstrative Circumstances cannot be applied to ascertain the general Meaning of these Pronouns, other Helps must be made use of. Hence, when a Letter is written, the Writer

sets his Name to it ; and this determines the particular Writer who is meant by I in that Letter : For I, in itself, is a Name common to every Writer of every Letter : And so the particular Person that is meant by you in that Letter, is determined by the Superscription ; for you, in itself, is a Name common to every one to whom any Letter is addressed : And if Conversation is supposed to be carried on by Way of Dialogue, and is written down to be read by those who were not actually present at the Dialogue, the Names of the Persons who speak alternately, must be written down, otherwise it cannot be known who is meant by I and you in the several Speeches : Or, if the Speaker delivers the very Words of another Speaker, we must be told who the original Speaker was, and who were the Persons originally addressed, before we can know what particular Persons are meant by I and you in the original Speech. This shews that, when demonstrative Circumstances cannot be applied, other Names must be mentioned, even of the individual Objects denoted by the Pronouns of the first and second Person. These other Names are in Grammar called Antecedents to the Pronouns ; because they are usually mentioned before the Pronouns, in order to ascertain the particular Object denoted by one of them. Demonstrative Circumstances can seldom be applied to ascertain the Meaning of Pronouns of the third Person ; for the Objects named by them are seldom present when they are spoken of ; therefore Antecedents are necessary to Pronouns of the third Person on almost all Occasions, whilst only some few Occasions require Antecedents to be actually mentioned to Pronouns of the first and second Person ; and on this Account the Grammarians have principally considered the Antecedent with regard to the Pronoun of the third Person only.

The Pronouns Personal are Noun Substantives ; for they express the Objects denoted by them as subject to Number : But the Characteristics of their several Species are such States as the Individuals of these Species *are not constantly or habitually in.* For, if we suppose two Speakers to carry on a Discourse, the Object, which is the speaker (and therefore of the first Person) in one Speech or Sentence may be the Hearer (and therefore of the second Person) in the next Speech, or Sentence ; and so alternately through a long Conversation : And a third Speaker may talk *of them both, and to neither of them* ; and if so, they are both of the *third Person* in the third Speaker's Discourse : And besides, no Man or other Object is any longer of any personal grammatic Species than he is actually concerned in some Discourse, either as *speaking and naming himself*, or as *spoken to*, or as *named in a Discourse neither spoken by, nor to himself*. This is one Reason for dating many Kinds of Writings, such as Letters, Bonds, and Deeds, that the precise Time may be known when such a Man or Woman supported such a Person in Discourse. This shews the great inconvenience which would ensue from making such Marks the Characteristics of any considerable Number of species, as are not *constant*, or at least *habitual*, in the Individuals of those Species : For such a Proceeding would make it necessary to refer almost all Names of species to *Antecedents*, as Pronouns are referred, and to date almost all Sorts of Writings, as Letters, Bonds, and Deeds are dated. There is yet another and stronger Reason for putting Dates to Letters, Bonds, &c. than the Reason given above. This other Reason will be shewn, when the Verb is treated of in its Definitive Character.

Of the Pronouns Possessive.

No. 12. These are only Adjectives formed from the personal Pronouns ; so that what is denoted by a personal Pronoun, as an Object separately ascertained in the Intellect, is expressed by the correspondent Possessive Pronoun, as a Coalescent Circumstance : Thus, you becomes YOUR ; HE becomes HIS, &c.

Of the Relative Pronoun.

Who, which, that, and what, are usually considered as the *Relative Pronouns* ; but *what* is equivalent to *this*, *which*, or *that which*, and therefore has the Effect of *Demonstrative and Relative Pronoun united*.

No. 13. The Relative Pronoun represents *an Object as a personal Pronoun does* ; but gives Notice at the same Time, that *a whole Clause*, in which it is concerned, expresses neither Truth nor Falshood, nor a compleat Object of the Intellect ; but a Conception of imperfect Sense, till it is united with another Name of the same Object that the Relative represents.

This other Name is the *Antecedent to the Relative*.

Hence the Relative reduces a whole Clause to the Nature of a Noun Adjective, or Coalescent Participle ; and it is the grammatic Form of the Clause which requires the Notice that is given by the Relative : For this Form is that of a compleat Sentence. + Now a compleat Sentence considered in itself, expresses even more than a Substantive : For it contains in it, not only the Conception of an Object compleated in the Intellect, as a Substantive does, but compleat Truth or Falshood : Therefore when Words, which bear the Form of a Sentence, are

+ For an Account of the Nature of a compleat Sentence, see Article XXXIV. towards the End.

ed to express *imperfect Sense*, Notice must be instantly given. On this Account the Relative is placed at the beginning of its Clause; for otherwise the grammatical Form of the Words would lead the Hearer to conclude, that it is an Expression of Truth or Falshood, and to be considered by itself as such: But the connective Notice given by the Relative prevents this; and therefore it is clear, that so much of the Signification of a Relative as is different from that of a Personal Pronoun, relates merely to the grammatical Form of the Clause which is to be considered as an Expression of imperfect Sense, till it is united with another Name of the same Object that the Relative represents.

A Relative Clause, when united with its Antecedent, does not increase the Number of the Object that is denoted by the compound Expression; yet the Object is named twice over; once by the Antecedent, and again by the Relative; therefore it is manifest, that when the Coalescence is actually formed in the Mind, between the Antecedent and the Relative Clause, the Object, as it is denoted by the Relative, vanishes out of the complex Conception. Thus, if the Relative Clause, *who labours habitually*, be united with the Antecedent, *a Man*, the expression, *a Man who labours habitually*, implies no plurality of Objects; and yet the Man is mentioned twice over; viz. once by the Name *a Man*, and again by *who*. Hence this Expression is equivalent to *a laborious Man*; and so, *of*, *to*, *with* a *Man who labours habitually*, are Expressions equivalent to *of*, *to*, *with a laborious Man*: That is to say the Relative Clause, *who labours habitually*, is exactly equivalent to the Adjective *laborious*, when applied to *a Man*, *of a Man*, *to a Man*, *with a Man*; and so of innumerable other Instances.

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As an Adjective is frequently equivalent to a dependent Case of a Substantive, so is likewise a Relative Clause. Thus, *the Parts of a Whole*, and *the Parts which constitute a Whole*, are equivalent Expressions; and so of other Instances in which the verbal State is permanent or habitual: For, if the State be not so, the Relative Clause is equivalent to a Coalescent Participle; as, *a Man who works yonder* is equivalent to *a Man working yonder*; and so of other Instances. The Reason of this is manifest, from what has been already shewn, concerning the permanent or habitual Nature of the Qualities or Circumstances denoted by the dependent Cases of Substantives, and by Adjectives when in Coalescence with Substantives; and likewise concerning the inconstant or occasional Nature of the States denoted by Verbs.

As a Substantive with an Adjective or Participle, or oblique Case of another Substantive, in Dependence upon it, expresses one complex objective Conception, it is manifest that a Substantive, with a Relative Clause in Dependence upon it, does the same. As an Act of discursive Judgment must be exerted to form a Conception from a dependent form of a Substantive, or from an Adjective, which can be constantly united, first with one Substantive, and then another, with which the same oblique Case, or the same Adjective, must coalesce on different Occasions; so the same Judgment must be exerted on every Application of a Relative Clause. Thus, in each of the Expressions, *Water which runs*, *a Horse which runs*, *Time which runs*, *Money which runs*, a different Kind of running must be understood; and so of other Instances.

The Relative, *in its own Clause*, may supply the Place of a Substantive in any Case, or in any connective M

of Estimation ; and therefore must admit of the Signs of Cases and Prepositions (which are the Marks of connective Modes of Estimation) as Substantives do. But with regard to its Antecedent, it gives Notice that the Conception expressed in the Relative Clause is to be considered as of imperfect Sense, till incorporated with the Conception of the Antecedent into a complex Conception not increased in Number.

A Relative Clause has this Property in common with the oblique Case of a Substantive, with an Adjective, and with a Coalescent Participle ; except that these seldom unite with the same Object which they contain in their Signification, whereas a Relative Clause always unites with the same Object which the Relative represents. Hence, the Expressions *a Man of Judgment*, *a judicious Man*, *a Man who has Judgment*, are equivalent Expressions ; only *the Man* is but once expressed in the first and second Forms ; but twice in the third ; i. e. once by *a Man*, and again by *who*.

A Relative connects an Expression, which has the form of a compleat Sentence, with another Sentence in which the Antecedent is concerned. The Conjunctions connect all Sorts of Sentences together : And hence a Relative Clause, united with its Antecedent's Sentence, frequently much of the same Import with two Sentences, in each of which the same Object is concerned, united by Conjunction : Thus, *I have read such a Book WHICH I do not understand*, is nearly of the same Import with *I have read such a Book, AND yet, or BUT yet, I do not understand IT* ; and so of other Instances.

It is manifest from hence, that the Relative Pronoun is the most general Connective in Language ; for it may

supply the Place of almost any other, when the same Object is concerned in two Sentences which are to be reduced to one. It is a Substantive in its own Clause ; but reduces the Clause to the Coalescent Nature of an Adjective, with regard to its Antecedent in another Sentence ; so that it partakes of the Nature both of the Substantive and of the Adjective.

Of the Interrogative Pronouns.

No. 14. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are only the Relatives applied in Questions, in which the Antecedent is to be determined by the Answer.

Thus, if I say, *who is that Man?* the Answer may be, *Mr. N—* ; and this determines the Antecedent to the Relative *who* : Or if I should be asked *what I am doing*, the Answer would be, *writing* ; that is to say, *Writing* is the Kind of *doing* that I am required to make known to the Speaker ; for he knows that I am doing something, and tells me so in the Words of the Question ; but he does not know the particular Kind of *doing* in which I am engaged ; and therefore he requires me to tell it by limiting the general Meaning of *what* so as to suit his Question. If that about which there may be either Question is asked be amongst some Company of Ointing) as objects, and the Person who asks the Question would have points to, or it distinguished to him from the rest, *which* is used to represent it, till it is so distinguished ; as, *which of the Horses will you have?* Answer, *The black one.*

It is manifest that the Interrogative Pronouns refer to Antecedents which are *Indefinite*, or not fully ascertained in the Speaker's Mind when he asks a Question ; i.

by one of them ; and that the Answer *defines* or *ascertains* the Antecedent.

In order to shorten Expressions, it has been found convenient to include the Force of a Relative Pronoun in several Adverbs ; such as WHY, HOW, WHEN, WHERE, and some others. These may be used in Questions as well as the Interrogative Pronouns, (for WHY is equivalent to *for what Reason* ; HOW, to *in what Manner* ; WHEN, to *at what Time* ; WHERE, to *in what Place*) and the Answer must determine the Reason, Manner, Time, or Place to which one of them relates in each particular Question. These Adverbs are therefore *Indefinite* in their Signification, as well as the Interrogative Pronouns.

Of the Demonstrative Pronouns.

This, that, another, and the same, are the Demonstrative Pronouns.

No. 15. These are opposite in Meaning to *Indefinites* ; for they express Objects as distinguished from others, *of the same Species*, by some Circumstance which may be either Demonstrative, (such as *pointing to* or *presenting*) as when a Speaker says THIS or THAT, and points to, or presents the Object which he means ; or it may be a Circumstance expressed in Words, as THIS *which is near* ; THAT *which is at a Distance*. Another shows that the Name to which it is prefixed, or instead of which it is used, denotes an Object different from some Object that may nevertheless be called by the same Appellative Name ; as, *this is not the right Book, get me another* ; i. e. an Object different from this, but one which may be called a Book.

The same, shews that the Name with which it is united, or instead of which it is used, denotes an Object no Ways different, when considered in more than one Respect, although the Name by which it is denoted may denote different Objects ; as, *this Book is the same that you left here* ; for it is here supposed that some other Object might have been left, which yet might have been equally called *a Book*.

These Pronouns are of the Nature of Adjectives, for they express *Coalescent Circumstances* ; as, *in this Man, that Thing; other Men, the same Thing, &c.* but as it frequently happens that the Demonstrative Circumstances which attend the Use of them, supply the Conception of the Object with which they unite, or that the Kind of Object is taken for granted as known to the Hearer ; therefore the Name of the Object is frequently omitted, and the Pronoun supplies its Place ; as, *that which was done Yesterday, may mean that Deed, or that Business, which was done Yesterday* ; and so of other Instances.

It appears from what is said above of Indefinites and Demonstrative Pronouns, that the Nature of the Conceptions which are denoted by common or appellative Names, has chiefly occasioned these Indefinites and Pronouns to be introduced into Language ; for as very many Objects may each of them be called by one and the same common Name, *that* or *this* is affixed to such a Name when the Individual, that is expressed by the Name, is distinguished by Pointing, or some other Way, from all other Objects which may be denoted by the same Name : Yet when an Object is thus distinguished, it frequently happens that it is not so fully known as to sati-

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by some one who is inquiring concerning it: For as several Objects may be denoted by the same common Name, so the same Object may be denoted by several common Names, and the Inquirer may know it by one of its Names, and yet may want to know it by some other Name. When this happens, he expresses the Object both by an Indefinite, and by some Name which he knows belongs to it, and thus forms a Question ; as, *Who is that Man ? What is Truth ?* The known Name enables the Person of whom the Question is asked, to perceive what the Question is about ; and the Indefinite represents that which the Question is about in so general a Manner, that it may stand for any other Name, or Description hereof, till such Name is mentioned, or such Description given ; as, *that Man is Mr. N— ; Truth is THE MANIFESTATION OF GOD'S ORDINANCES ;* and so of other Instances.

THE DISTRIBUTIVES *every, each, either, any*; THE INDEFINITE PARTITIVE *some*, and THE INDEFINITE NUMERALS *many, few*, are likewise introduced into Language in consequence of the Nature of Appellative Names : For were not one and the same Name applicable to many individual Objects, there could be no Indefinites or Distributives in Language.

Of the Article.

No. 16. The Knowledge of the Nature of the Indefinites above described, and of that of the Demonstrative Pronouns, will lead us, by an easy Transition, to perceive the Nature and Use of the Articles. These are of two kinds, the Indefinite A and AN, and the Definite THE. When the Indefinite Article is prefixed to a Substantive, it is a Notice that the Speaker is considering only one Object

ject at once of the Kind which the Substantive denotes ; but that the Object is equally concerned with others of the same Kind in some State or Situation in which it is represented. The Object which is thus considered may, of Consequence, represent every Object of the Kind, or any Object, or some Object, or one Object not particularly known or ascertained from amongst others of the Kind, according as the State or Circumstances are more or less comprehensive, in which the Indefinite Object is represented : Thus, in

*Why should a Dog, a Horse, a Rat, have Life,
And thou no Breath at all ? Shakesp.*

A Dog, a Horse, a Rat, represent every Dog, Horse, and Rat, because the State of having Life is common to all of them.

But in ——that a Brother should
Be so perfidious ! Shakesp.

A Brother represents any Brother ; for the State of being so perfidious is not supposed to be common to every Brother ; but considered as it is wonderful that so much as any one should be found amongst all Brothers capable of being so.

In Diogenes being in Quest of an honest Man, sought for him, when it was broad Day-light, with a Lanthorn and Candle. Spectat. No. 354.

An honest Man means some one honest Man to whom Chance might direct Diogenes.

And in he ordered one of his Servants who was placed behind a Screen, to write down their Table-Talk. Spectat.

A Screen means one of those Things, each of which is called a Screen, and of which there might be more than

one

one in the Room : And in all Expressions which represent, or suppose, other Objects of the Kind denoted by the common Name to be equally capable, or likely, to be in some State with one and no more, the Indefinite Article may be used ; as,

When the Butt is out we will drink Water.

Not a Drop before.

Shakesp.

i.e. not so much as one of those Quantities of Water, each of which is called a Drop.

And when a Person shews a particular Object, and says, *this is a Grammar*, for Instance ; the Meaning is, *this is one of those Things, each of which is called a GRAMMAR*. From this Account of the Indefinite Article, the Reason appears why the Terms of many general Propositions are not convertible ; as for Instance, *a Horse is an Animal*, is a true Proposition ; but *an Animal is a Horse*, is not so : For the Meaning of the first Proposition is, *every or any Horse is one of those Things, each of which is called an Animal* ; and this is true : And the Meaning of the second is, *any or every Animal is one of those Things each of which is called a Horse* ; and this is not true : But if you limit the extensive Signification of the Word *Animal*, by prefixing *this*, or *that*, or some other Word to it ; as, *this Animal*, or *that Animal*, or *the black Animal*, *is a Horse*, the Proposition may be true ; and so of other Instances.

As this Article, in all its Acceptations, denotes that the Speaker really attends to no more than one Object, but considers it as some way equally concerned with others of the same Kind, it is manifest that it cannot, in Strictness of Speech, be applied to Plural Names ; yet it is applied in some elliptical Expressions, so as in Effect

fect to shew a Singular Name as expressing more than one Object of a Sort: Thus, *many a Man does so or so*, is equivalent to *each one Man of many (Men) does so or so*: And in the Expressions *a great many Boys*, *a few Boys are come*; although the Word *Boys* be Plural as to grammatical Form, it is considered as denoting *Boys of such a Number*, that *each one of the like Numbers* may be called *a great or small Number*; and so of other Instances.

The Definite Article **THE** is prefixed to common Names, either Singular or Plural, to give Notice that *the Names represent the Objects denoted by them, as in some State or Circumstance in which other Objects of the same Kind are not equally concerned.*

The Mind is at Liberty to consider *a whole Species* as one complex Object. When it does so, no other Objects of the Species remain which can be equally concerned with the Object denoted by the common Name that has the Definite Article before it; as,

- The Woman is the Glory of the Man.* New Test.
i. e. the Species *Woman* is the Glory of the Species *Man*.
The Horse is a noble Animal.
i. e. the Species *Horse* is one of the Sorts contained in the Species *noble Animal*.

The above-mentioned Manner of defining the Object denoted by a Name of Species, does not occur, in the Use of Language, near so frequently as the ascertaining some one or more Objects of a Species by some Distinction which they have, but which is not common to all other Objects of the same Species. Some fixed Connection with a known Object may serve as such a Distinction; as, *the Sayings of the seven wise Men*; or some previous Knowledge, or settled Intention; as, *the Books which*

which I have read To-day ; the Business which you intend to To-morrow ; or the Object may have been mentioned before, as *the Rules given above*. When an Object is thus determined, the Definite Article is frequently equivalent to a Demonstrative Pronoun ; as, *the Horse which you saw Yesterday*, and *that Horse which you saw Yesterday*, are equivalent Expressions. The Account given above of the Demonstrative Pronoun, shews why they are so ; and very many other Instances may be produced of the like Coincidence. It may likewise be taken for granted, that the Hearer knows an Object to be the only one, or Number of its Kind ; as, *the King*, *the Prophets*, *the Apostles*, meaning *the present King of England*, *the Prophets of the Old Testament*, *the Apostles of the New*, &c. or the Definite Object may be *the very greatest*, *least*, *greatest*, *best*, &c. of its Kind, or within certain Limits ; as, *the greatest Man of the Age*, *the least Child in the School*, &c. And, lastly, the Custom of the English Language frequently prefixes *the Definite Article* to a Participle, in order to shew that it is to be considered as a Substantive, with regard to another Substantive that depends upon it by the Sign *OF* ; as, *the seeing OF a Sight*, *the building OF a House*, &c. And this Article is likewise placed before Adjectives in the Comparative Degree, when two of them are used to denote Similarity of Increase or Diminution in different Instances, but the one as dependent on the other ; as, **THE HIGHER** you stand **THE FARTHER** you may see ; **THE LESS** you desire **THE SOONER** you will be satisfied, &c. and before Adjectives both of the Comparative and Superlative Degree, when they denote such a Degree as of principal Consideration in what is said ; as, he will like it **THE BETTER** for your Recommendation ; like this **THE LEAST** of all ; and sometimes before Ad-

verbs, when compared by *more* and *most*; as, they proceeded THE MORE CAUTIOUSLY on that Account.

Of the Verb.

No. 17. Verbs denote States of Being, which may be considered either as Objects, or Coalescent Circumstances, including the Character of beginning, continuing, ending, being renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion of Discourse.

I have already shewn that the Conceptions of the States denoted by Verbs differ from those denoted by Nouns, either Substantive or Adjective; and this, in consequence of their including the occasional Character above-mentioned. I have likewise said, that all the grammatical Forms, peculiar to the Verb, proceed from this single Character. I am now to make good my Assertion: And, in order to this, I must observe, that the Verb appears in three different Capacities in Language, which I shall call THE OBJECTIVE, THE COALESCENT, and THE DEFINITIVE.

No. 18. THE VERB OBJECTIVE denotes a State of Being, represented by a Conception, separately ascertain'd in the Intellect, as the Conception of an Object is, which is denoted by a Noun Substantive, but it expresses the State as having the occasional Character, which the States denoted by Substantives have not. Hence all the States denoted even by objective Words, must be abstract States; i. e. such as the Mind considers merely for its own Convenience as existing each by a separate Principle: For if they really had such a Principle inherent in themselves, they could not begin, continue, end, be renewed, destroyed, and again repeated, so as to suit any Occasion. Hence no

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such Object as *Heaven*, *Earth*, *Mineral*, or even *Animal*, *Vegetable*, can be denoted by a Verb : For these are incapable of being destroyed, and again renewed, so as to suit any Occasion : But the State, denoted by every Form of every Verb, must be such as is capable of beginning, ceasing, being again renewed, and again destroyed, and so on by Fits, or Intervals ; and thus it will be distinguished into successive Periods, capable of being counted by the Numbers *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, &c. Hence the Negative Adverb *not* may be united with every Form of every Verb, to express the State denoted by the Verb, as *never begun*, or as *destroyed* : And the Adverb *again* may be united with the same Forms, to express either the *Affirmative* or *Negative State* as restored ; as, *to be, not to be* ; *to be again, not to be again* ; and so of other Instances.

As the Conception annexed to an objective Verb is separately ascertained in the Intellect, like the Conception annexed to a Substantive, every such Verb must admit of being applied in Construction on the same Principles on which Substantives are applied : Therefore the Signs of Cases, and other Prepositions, may be united with objective Verbs, as well as with Substantives, to direct to the several Modes of discursive Operation, which are to be exerted in forming the complex Conceptions, denoted by other Words with these Verbs in Dependence upon them. Hence the objective Verb, *speaking*, for Instance, may be declined like a Substantive ; as, *speaking, of speaking, to speaking, in, with, by, from speaking* ; and so of any other objective Verb.

The Forms of the Verb which are called *Infinitive* in Grammar, are used objectively in all the Languages that I have any Knowledge of : But it would be incon-

venient to prefix the Signs of Cases and other Prepositions to these Forms of the English Verb ; because *to*, in this Language, is the Sign of the Infinitive Mood of the Verb, and likewise of the Dative Case of Substantives : Therefore *to to speak*, would be a very inconvenient Form of Expression ; and *of to speak*, *in to speak*, &c. would be disagreeable, and often ambiguous. On this Account the English Participles are used objectively, as in the Instances *speaking*, *of speaking*, &c. given above. This Use of the Participle is (as I think) peculiar to the English, and contributes much to the Conciseness of its Expression, and the Simplicity of its Construction.

No. 19. Yet the Verb, in its Nature, is *coalescent*, by whatsoever grammatic Form it is expressed : For the Kind of State denoted by it can have no actual Existence separate from other Objects ; therefore, in all its Forms, it may unite with an objective Word on which it depends, without the Mediation of any Sign or Preposition. Hence, even *the Infinitive Forms* coalesce immediately with Substantives on which they depend in such Expressions ; as, *I know THESE THINGS TO BE*, *they supposed THE GUIDES TO HAVE BEEN MISTAKEN*, &c. For *these Things to be*, expresses that which is known by me ; and *the Guides to have been mistaken*, that which was supposed by them : But the Participles are principally used in *Coalescence*, and that with Substantives, and objective Words of all Kinds ; as, *a Man speaking* ; *of to, with a Man speaking* ; *to stand dejected* ; *standing dejected* ; *of, to, with standing dejected* ; and so of other Instances.

THE VERB COALESCENT is of the same Nature with an Adjective, except that it carries its occasional Character

racter along with it; and this creates a considerable Difference between it and an Adjective: For the Verb conveys the *occasional Characteristic* of a new Species to the Object on the Expression of which it depends; and this an Adjective does not. Thus, in *a Man speaking, bearing, reading*, the Man becomes of the Species *Speaker, Hearer, Reader*; but so long only as there is Occasion for him to be in these States. Whereas in *a talkative, attentive, studious Man*, the *Man* passes into no new Species, but into *inferior Sorts* of the Species *Man*; and is conceived to be constantly, or at least habitually fixed in some of these inferior Sorts. Hence, if the *occasional Character* is abstracted from the Coalescent Participle, and a permanent or habitual one substituted in its Place, the Participle becomes an Adjective; as, *a running Water, a rising Man, a thriving Plant, a determined Spirit, a painted Sepulchre, &c.*

I have already observed, that *one objective Conception* may be expressed by several Words placed together in a connected Series: *A Coalescent Verb* may be one of these Words, and may convey its occasional State to some Part of what is denoted by the Series, and not to the whole Object denoted by the whole Series: Thus, in *Attention to a Man speaking*; the *Man* is in the occasional State *speaking*; but the *Attention* is not; and so of other Instances.

As the State denoted by a Verb *Objective* or *Coalescent* is *occasional*, the same Period thereof may be an Object of *Memory*, or of *actual Perception*, or of *Foresight*: or if it has once existed to suit some Occasion, and then has ceased, it is an Object of *Memory* only: If it actually exists, it may be actually perceived so long as the Occasion of its Existence lasts: If it never has existed, but is only intended, or proposed, or considered before

before it comes to pass, in order to suit some Occasion, it is an Object of Foresight only. The three English Infinitive Forms of the Verb represent the State under this threefold Distinction; as, *to have been*, *to be*, *to be about to be*; and the three Participles do the same; as, *having been*, *being*, *about to be*, &c.

No. 20. THE VERB DEFINITIVE is always coalescent; but it contains in its Signification a farther Notice than the Coalescent Participle does. This Notice relates to the Words themselves, with which the Definitive Verb coalesces, and shews that the Expression of the Object which these Words denote, is sufficiently compleated for the Speaker's present Occasion and that the Verbal State affects the whole Object as if it were expressed by one Name. All the Forms of the Verb are Definitive, except the Infinitive Forms and Participles above described; and therefore all the Forms but these contain in them the Notice above-mentioned.

An Object may be expressed by a single Substantive or a single Objective Verb; and when it is so, and the Definitive Verb is made to depend upon it, all farther Composition of the Expression of that Object is stopped on that Occasion: Thus, in *I call*, *a Man calls*; neither of the Objects I, A MAN, now admits of any farther Accertainment by other Words made to depend immediately on the Names I, A MAN: But, in *a good Man calls*, *a good Man of my Acquaintance calls*, the Objects A GOOD MAN, A GOOD MAN OF MY ACQUAINTANCE are each of them expressed by a Series of Words; and neither of the Serieses can now be farther compounded; and each of them is affected by the State *calls*, as if which each of them denotes were expressed by a single Substantive, which I

stantive. The Act of Affirmation or Assertion consists in giving Notice that the Composition of the Expression on which the Verb depends is stopped; and that the whole Object, denoted by the Expression, is affected by the Verb, as it would be if this Object were expressed by one Substantive, and the same Verb depended on that Substantive.

The Definitive Verb always shews the Object on which it depends as in *an occasional State*, even in general Truths, or such as are often called eternal Truths: For the Conception of the Object on which the Verb depends may be made less or more complex at the Speaker's Pleasure, and may either be expressed by one Name, or by a Series of Words, as he judges most suitable to his present Occasion: Thus we may say, GOD is eternal; or THE GOD OF THE UNIVERSE is eternal; or GOD THE CREATOR OF ALL THINGS is eternal; or we may add innumerable Attributes or Circumstances to the Object GOD, in order to suit any Occasion, and subjoin the Definitive Verb *is* to the Expression of the whole Conception; and then Notice will be given, that the State of the Conception in our Mind suits our present Occasion. In short, consider the Verb attentively in whatsoever Light you please, and you will find that its essential or distinguishing Property is *the occasional Character* above explained.

The Definitive Forms or Tenses of the Verb relate to Time, as distinguished into past, present, and to come, by the Demonstrative Act of speaking or writing the particular Discourse in which these Tenses are used: For the Words CALL, (for Instance) if considered in themselves, express my calling as equally relating to any Instant of Time in which I pronounce the Words; I CALLED, as to Time preceding;

preceding ; I SHALL CALL, as to Time succeeding any Point of Time in which I pronounce the Words. If therefore I address these Words to a Person who does not actually hear me speak them, as in a Letter or other Writing, I must mention the precise Point of Time to which the present Form, I CALL, relates in the Letter or Writing : i. e. I must put a Date to it : For the Date is that present Time written down : And when this is known, the Past and Future, to which the other Forms of the Verb relate in that Letter, or Writing, are determined from it.

From this Account of the *Definitive Verb*, it appears why a *Relative Pronoun* destroys its Definitive Power : For the Relative is an express Notice that its Clause must be united with its Antecedent, in order to make it compleat Sense : Therefore the Composition of the Relative Clause is incompleat, although it contains a Definitive Verb in it ; and consequently the Notice of the grammatical Form of the Verb is destroyed by the connective Notice of the Relative. Hence Multitudes of Relative Clauses are equivalent to a Coalescent Participle of the Verbs which these Clauses contain : For a Coalescent Participle is the same Effect as a Verb deprived of its Definitive Power : Thus, a Man who labours here, is equivalent to a Man labouring here ; a Tree which grows yonder, to a Tree growing yonder ; a Picture which I see, to a Picture seen by me ; a Man whom you know, to a Man known by you, &c. In the two last Instances the Passive Particles seen, known, are substituted instead of the Active Verbs see, know ; and by me, by you, are substituted instead of you. The Reason of this will appear when the Verb Transitive is considered particularly.

It likewise appears from this Account of the *Definitive Verb*, why it cannot depend on a single Substantive in an oblique Case, or on a single Adjective, Adverb, Conjunction, or Preposition: For all these Words must have some Word to depend upon, before the Composition can be compleat. If therefore a Definitive Verb should be made to depend on one of them, *the grammatical Form of the Verb* would shew the Composition of the Expression on which it depends to be compleat when it is not so; and therefore the whole Expression would be absurd. What is said of a single Substantive in an oblique Case, and of a single Adjective, Adverb, Conjunction, or Preposition, equally obtains with regard to any Series of Words depending on any of them: For the Composition of every such Series is incompleat till some Word is added for them to depend upon: Therefore, till such Word is added, no Definitive Verb can be consistently made to depend on the Series. Hence there must be in every Expression on which a Definitive Verb can depend, *the Nominative Case of a Substantive*, or an *Oblique Case of a Verb*, or some Expression or Demonstrative Circumstance, equivalent to *the one of them*, otherwise the Composition cannot be compleat; and therefore no Definitive Verb can be consistently applied to give Notice that it is so.

I except, in what is said above, the Instance in which Words are applied to signify the meer Sound, or written Appearance, of each: For when thus applied they are all of the Nature of Substantives; and of Consequence any one of them, or any Series of them, may make a Definitive Verb in Dependence upon it, as when is said *of is a Particle*; and so of other Instances.

Of the different Sorts of Verbs.

No. 21. When Verbs are distinguished into Sorts by the different Manners in which they are used in Construction, they are divided into VERBS TRANSITIVE, and VERBS INTRANSITIVE, or NEUTER, as they are sometimes called.

Every *Verb Transitive* consists of Pairs of States so conceived, that either State of a Pair supposes the other of the same Pair: Thus, the State *to see*, supposes the State *seen*; and, conversely, the latter supposes the former. The State, *to be seen*, must exist in some Object, that the State, *to see*, immediately affects. If therefore the Name of an Object be placed in immediate Dependence on the Verb *to see*, that Object will be considered as in the State *seen*, and that instantly, without any direct mentioning of the State: And thus the Mind is enabled *to pass on* so as to consider the Object *seen* merely as a Coalescent Circumstance of the State *to see*; and hence this Verb is called a *Verb Transitive* in Grammar. All Verbs which have Pairs of Forms corresponding in the Manner above-mentioned, are *Transitives*; such as *to read*, *to be read*; *to have given*, *to have been given*; *hearing*, *heard*; *having heard*, *having been heard*, &c. &c. The first of each of these Pairs is called an *Active Verb* in Grammar; and the second a *Passive Verb*. The Active Verbs are only considered as Transitive in Grammar: Yet the Passive Form as much supposes a corresponding Active State, as the Active supposes a corresponding Passive State: But when a Passive Verb is used, and an Object in Dependence upon it is conceived to be in the corresponding Active State, the Sign *by* is interposed, in English, between the Verb

and seeing Jam

and the Name of the Object ; as, *to be seen by a Man*, where the Man is *the Object seeing*. The Reason why the Sign is interposed will quickly appear in what will be said of the *Verb Intransitive*.

It is manifest from hence, that there are two Ways in Language of representing an Object as in the same Active or Passive Verbal State. The one by setting down the Active or Passive Verb in immediate Dependence on the Name of the Object ; as, *a Man seeing, a Man seen* : The other Way for the Active State, by setting down the Name with the Sign *by* in Dependence on the Passive Verb ; as, *seen by a Man* (for here *the Man* is in the State *seeing*) and for the Passive State, by setting down the Name in immediate Dependence on the Transitive Verb ; as, *seeing a Man* (for here *the Man* is in the State *seen*). Hence it comes to pass, that the Relative Clause, *a Man whom I see*, is equivalent to *a Man seen by me* ; for *the Man*, as represented by *whom*, is understood to be in the State *seen*, as he is directly represented in the second Form, *a Man seen* ; and *I*, as represented in *by me*, am understood to be in the State *seeing*, as I am directly represented in the first Form, *I see* : And on the other Hand, *a Man by whom I am seen*, is equivalent to *a Man who sees me* ; and this to *a Man seeing me*. Thus the Reason appears of the Coincidence, in Sense, of these very different Forms of Expression.

It may not be improper to observe here, that the Account given above of *that in which the transitive Power of the Verb Transitive consists*, shews most evidently, that the Sign of a Case is only a Mark of a certain Mode of Estimation of the Mind of Man : For the Sense of *John seeing James*, is exactly equivalent to the Sense of *James seen*

seen by John, because the very same Picture would represent that which is denoted by either: Yet *John* is of the *Nominative Case* in the first, and of the *Ablative* in the second; and *James* is of the *Accusative* in the second, and of the *Nominative* in the first. The *Active Participle* is mentioned in the first, and the *Passive Participle* in the second; but both the *Active* and *Passive States* of the Verb are really concerned in both the Expressions: For the *Passive* is understood in the first by the Sign of the *Accusative Case* (which is the mere Position of *James* after the Transitive Verb *seeing*); and the *Active State* is understood in the second, in consequence of the Sign *by* prefixed to *John*, and following the *Passive Verb* *seen*: And this is manifestly *the meer Result of two different Modes of Estimation of the Mind of Man employed on the very same Appearance.*

Many other very difficult Points in Grammar may be explained from the Account given above, of that in which the transitive Power of a Verb Transitive consists; as the Effect of a Preposition; the Reason of what is called *absolute Construction*; of its appearing so frequently in Latin, and that from a Want of Participles in that Language. These, and several other Points, are treated of at large, and explained from the Nature of the Transitive Verb, in the larger Treatise on speculative Grammar, of which this is an Abstract.

No. 22. VERBS INTRANSITIVE, or NEUTER, are such as have not Pairs of correspondent States, as the Verbs *Transitive have*; although they have the *occasional Character*, which is essential to every Verb. *To be, to be come, to stand, to sit, to grow*, are of this Kind. As they have not corresponding States which can be considered

as in other Objects, without being actually mentioned, they are of Consequence without the transitive Power. Many of them denote States, which, though *occasional*, cannot be conceived as States either of Action or Suffering, and therefore they are called Neuters; as, *to rest*, *to fade*, &c.

The Verb *to be*, is the most considerable of all Verbs; and with the Verbs *to exist*, *to become*, and some few others, constitutes a Class called, in Grammar, *Verbs Substantive*. Most of these Verbs receive all Sorts of Substantives in immediate Dependence upon them; and, by this Dependence, the Substantives are made to denote mere *Coalescent Circumstances* of the verbal State with which they unite; and this without the Intervention of correspondent Passive States, as in Transitive Verbs; thus, *to be a Merchant*, *to become a Soldier*, are complex Expressions of two Verbal States, in which *a Merchant*, *a Soldier*, are mere Coalescent Circumstances. It is the Nature of Species which gives Occasion to this Kind of Construction; for the Characteristics of many of them are not irrevocably fixed in the Individuals thereof, but may be acquired and parted with occasionally; therefore the Names of Species coalesce with the Verbs above-mentioned, to express, *not fixed Objects*, but *occasional States*; and this chiefly for the Purpose of representing *the same Objects which themselves denote*, as in *the occasional States*. This appears in such a one, *being*, *having been*, *going to be a Merchant*: For such a one, and a *Merchant*, are both Names of the same Object; but such a one expresses the Object as a certain Individual distinguished by irrevocable Marks; whereas *being a Merchant* expresses a revocable or occasional State of being, in which the Object such a one is observed. It is manifest,

fest, that this Kind of Construction is chiefly used when we intend to intitle more fully the Object on which the verbal State depends.

All Adjectives may depend immediately on any of the Forms of the Verbs *to be, to become, &c.* and when so, the Verb, together with the dependent Adjective, denotes an occasional State; as, *to be good, once, twice, thrice; to have been foolish, once, twice, thrice, &c.* This Form of Construction is used, not to intitle, but to describe Objects, by Qualities considered as occasional in them: And this shews with how little Reason the Adjective has been rank'd with Verbs, and said to be of the same general Nature with them: Whereas to make Adjectives so, they must depend on the Forms of some Verb Neuter, in order to acquire the occasional Character of the Verb.

The Passive Verbs *to be named, called, made, appointed, created, &c.* admit of the like Construction with the Verb Substantive, and that for the same Reason; i. e. because they unite together two Names of the same Object; as, *a Child named John; a Nobleman appointed Ambassador to such a Court, &c.* The last-mentioned Verbs are the Passive Forms of Verbs Transitive; and as the Substantives united by them are both *Names of one and the same Object*, either of them equally signifies *the Object named, appointed, &c.* i. e. the Object that is in the State which is actually mentioned; as, *the Nobleman is the Object appointed, and the Ambassador is likewise the Object appointed.* Hence, if we would express an Object which depends on a Passive Verb, not as in the State that is actually mentioned, but in the corresponding Active State, we must give Notice of our Intention by *some particular Sign.* By is used for this Purpose in English, and this prevents all Ambiguity. Thus, in the Expression

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Child named by John, we immediately perceive that *John* is not the *Object named*, as in the former Mode of Construction, but *the Object naming*. The rest of the Intransitive or Neuter Verbs require no particular Explanation.

No. 23. When the English Verbs are distinguished into Sorts *by the different Manners in which their grammatical Forms are composed*; they may be reduced to three Classes of Forms, called THE VOICES OF THE VERB, and these may be called THE ACTIVE, THE PASSIVE, and THE MIDDLE VOICE. The Verb *to call*, is varied through these *Voices* in the Practical Grammar, as a Pattern by which any other *Regular Verb* may be varied or *conjugated*, as it is called in Grammar. And Rules are farther given for the conjugating of *every Irregular Verb*. These Rules for the Irregular Verbs may be of considerable Service to Foreigners, who usually find this Part of our Language somewhat intricate and difficult.

No. 24. As to THE MOODS OF VERBS, I have already shewed the Import of the Forms of the *Infinitive Mood*, and likewise of the *Participles*, which (at least when used objectively) may be considered as other Forms of this Mood.

The other Moods are all *Definitive*, and therefore relate to Subjects expressed in Words, or taken for granted, as understood of Course; therefore they are all declarative of the occasional State of some Subject, the Expression whereof is compleated either in Words, or ascertained by Demonstrative Circumstances, or understood of Course.

There are four Instances in which the Subject is always the Speaker himself: These are a Question, a Command, an

an Intreaty, and a Wish : And in these the States of *questioning, commanding, intreating, wishing*, are conceived to be present in the Speaker, when the Words are spoken that express what the *Question, Command, &c.* is about. These States, or occasional Dispositions of the Speaker's Mind, are given Notice of by placing the Nominative Case after the Verb or Sign ; as *lovest THOU me ?* or *doest THOU love me ? go YE ; come unto me ALL YE THAT ARE HEAVY LADEN ; may YOU succeed.* That which every Question, Command, Intreaty, or Wish is about, is, in Effect, a Supposition : For it may either be, or come to pass, as it is represented, or not ; therefore Suppositions are often expressed by placing the Nominative Case after the Verb or Sign ; as, *were I as you, for if I were as you ; could we but think, for if we could but think, &c.* It is manifest from hence, that what any Question, Command, Intreaty, or Wish is about, must include in it an occasional State ; i. e. a State which may or may not be : For it is to no Purpose to inquire, command, intreat, or wish, concerning that which cannot (at least in Supposition) either be or not be so or so ; therefore a Verb is necessarily concerned in the Expression of every Question, Command, Intreaty, or Wish.

When the Object commanded or intreated is present, or supposed to be so, at the Time of speaking, the Pronouns *THOU, YE, or YOU* are usually omitted ; as, *go*, instead of *go thou*, or *go you* ; for the *Act of addressing the Words* ascertains the Object that is commanded or intreated.

In a Question, the Object of whom the Question is asked, must be present, or considered as present, even in a Letter or other Writing ; if therefore the Question be

not

not concerning the State of that Object itself, there is no Occasion for the Pronoun of the second Person, nor for any Verb that depends on it, seeing the Act of asking the Question supplies their Place: Thus, *who is come?* is equivalent to *do you tell me who is come;* and *are they come?* is equivalent to *do you tell me whether they are, or are not come;* i. e. to, do you tell me which of the Suppositions, *they are come,* *they are not come,* is true; and so of other Instances.

No. 25. THE TENSES of the Indicative Mood are six; and these so constituted, that two of them relate to the Time in which the Words of a Sentence are spoken, two to Time preceding, and two to Time succeeding the Time in which the Words are spoken. The first Tense of each Pair expresses the State as *in Continuance;* the second, *so far as it is over* at the Time to which the Tense relates. THE PRESENT and SECOND P^RETERITE relate to the Time in which the Words are pronounced: Thus, *I call,* expresses the State as *in Continuance;* *I have called,* as *over* at that Time. THE FIRST P^RETERITE and PLUPERFECT relate to Time preceding that in which the Words are pronounced: Thus, *I called,* expresses the State as it was *in Continuance;* *I had called,* as it was *over* at some Time before the Time of speaking. THE FIRST and SECOND FUTURE relate to Time succeeding the Time of speaking, and with the like Distinctions: Thus, *I shall call,* expresses the State as it will be *in Continuance;* *I shall have called,* as it will be *over* at some Time after the Words are spoken.

These are the general Distinctions which are observed in the most usual Application of these Tenses: But several of them are used on many Occasions indefinitely;

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i. e. without strict Regard to the Distinctions above-mentioned: Thus, *they go*, frequently means *they will go*, or *they propose to go*; as *they go To-morrow*; and *if they did so*, frequently means *if they were to do so at any Time*; as *if they did so they would be blamed*, and the like Indefinite Meaning of the Tenses is frequently found in Subpositions and Expressions of imaginary States.

The Demonstrative Adverbs of Time, such as *now*, *formerly*, *lately*, *hereafter*, have been introduced into Language, chiefly for the Purpose of ascertaining the Indefinite Meaning of several of the Tenses; as, *if they did so formerly, lately, now, hereafter*; and the Substantives *To-day*, *Yesterday*, *To-morrow*, and the Adjectives *last*, *this*, *next*, in such Expressions as *last Week*, *this Month*, *next Year*, serve for the same Purpose. The very Point or Period of Time to which these Words relate, must be determined by actually speaking them, or by putting a Date to each Letter or Writing in which they are used: For *To-day*, in itself, denotes *any Day in which the Word is spoken*; and *Yesterday* denotes *the Day preceding*; and *To-morrow*, *the Day succeeding any Day in which the Words are spoken*. The Property of relating to Time, as distinguished into past, present, and to come, by the Act of speaking, is common to these Words, with the Present, Past, and Future Tenses of the Definitive Verb: Yet these Words are not Verbs, and therefore Aristotle's Definition of a Verb, that *it is a significant Word including Time*, is not perfectly exact.

No. 26. The Imperative Mood has but ONE TENSE which is considered as a Present Tense, and is used in Commands and Intreaties, and has therefore been ex-

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plained already. Sometimes indeed a Past Tense appears in the Imperative Form ; as, *LET HIM HAVE BEEN as foolish as you please, still he deserves Pardon.* This Form, so far as it is Imperative, relates to a present Supposition concerning a Past State, and directs the Person addressed to take the Supposition for granted.

No. 27. THE TENSES of the Potential Mood are all of an *Indefinite Nature*; for the States of the Verbs which depend on the Signs *may, can, might, could, should, would,* are not represented as *actually existing*, but as depending for their Existence on the States denoted by the Signs. The Conceptions of these latter States, (i. e. of the States denoted by the Signs) all of them include both the *occasional* and the *definitive Character* of the Verb; and therefore all these Signs are compleat Verbs: But the States which they denote immediately affect other *occasional dependent States.* The State which each Sign denotes is exceedingly general; therefore, in order to limit its general Meaning, a verbal Expression of some Sort of dependent State is subjoined to the Sign. **SHALL** and **WILL**, must be considered as the Signs of the Present Tense of this Mood, as well as of the Future of the Indicative: For in such Expressions as *you SHALL continue as you are, I WILL continue as I am,* **SHALL** manifestly denotes a *present State of Compulsion;* and **WILL,** a *present State of determined Volition.*

The Nature of the States, denoted by these Signs, may easily be explained from what has been said of the Verb in general, and of the Definitive Verb in particular. **CAN** denotes any State analogous to a *State of confirmed Ability;* **MAY,** any State analogous to a *State of confirmed Freedom from Contradiction;* **MUST,** any State analogous to a *State of inevitable Necessity;* **SHALL,** any

State analogous to a State of Compulsion ; WILL, any State analogous to a State of determined Volition. COULD denotes any State analogous to a State of Ability, either as merely remembered, or as not fully confirmed ; MIGHT, any State analogous to a State of Freedom from Contradiction, either as merely remembered, or as not fully ascertained ; SHOULD, any State analogous to a State of Compulsion ; WOULD, any State analogous to a State of Volition, under the like Circumstances : Thus, in I said that I COULD, MIGHT, SHOULD, WOULD do so : The States denoted by could, might, &c. are manifestly the States can, may, &c. represented as now past, or merely remembered ; for the Words that I really said at first were, I CAN, MAY, SHALL, WILL do so ; but in I COULD, MIGHT, SHOULD, WOULD do so now, or To-morrow, upon such Conditions, it is equally evident that COULD, MIGHT, &c. express the States CAN, MAY, &c. considered as not fully confirmed or determined. All these States may begin, continue, end, be renewed or repeated in the same Object, so as to suit any Occasion : And the Expression of that Object must be compleat, otherwise these Signs cannot be consistently applied to it. And hence it appears, that the States denoted by these Signs are occasional and definitive : But it also follows, that the States immediately depending upon them must likewise be occasional ; for a State of Ability, or of Freedom from Contradiction, or of Compulsion, or Volition, can no ways influence any States but those which are capable of being begun, continued, or put an End to occasionally : And there can be no Need to represent any States as under an inevitable Necessity of coming or not coming to pass, but such as are capable of being occasionally free from such Necessity. I observed at the first, that the States denoted by the Forms or Tenses of this Mood are all of an Indefinite Nature, and the Reason why they are so, is now clearly shewn.

No. 28. The Forms of the Subjunctive Mood express *contingent States*; i. e. such as one Object may happen to be in as well as another; or such as may happen to be in one certain Manner, or in some other; or may be in any Manner that shall be supposed or assumed: Yet these Forms have not this Power in themselves, but acquire it by depending either on Indefinites, such as *whoever*, *howsoever*, or on Words which give Notice of a Supposition, such as *if*, *unless*, *although*, &c. The Indicative Forms may acquire the same contingent Power, by depending on the same Words, and therefore are applied as commonly as the Subjunctive Forms in a contingent Sense; as, *whoever he BE*, or *whoever he IS, that says so*, are equivalent Expressions; and so of other Instances.

There are double Forms of some of the Tenses of the English Verb, which are set down in the Practical Grammar; and the different Use and Import of each Form (as of *shall and will*, for Instance) is shewn and proved by Examples.

No. 29. As to the Distinctions of NUMBER and PERSON in the Definitive Forms of the English Verb, they relate to the like Distinctions in the Objects, on the Names of which they depend; and, as in other Languages, *only serve to ascertain more fully the Construction of the Words themselves*. There is no Distinction of Person in the Plural Termination of our Verbs; and therefore the Pronouns **WE**, **YE**, or **YOU** are used to distinguish the first and second Persons; for the third is used without the Pronoun **THEY**, if there be any other Name of the third Person for the Verb to depend upon; as, *we call, you call, the Men call*; not *the Men THEY call*. The Plural

Plural Form of no English Verb, except some of the Tenses of the Verb *to be*, is different from that of the first Person Singular of the same Tense; and therefore the Pronoun *I* is used to distinguish this Person of the Verb in the Singular Number.

The Signs *BE* and *BEEN* give a Passive Signification to the verbal Form which depends upon them *in all the compound Past Tenses of the regular English Verb*; for the same Form, when depending on other Signs, has an Active Signification: Thus, *to have CALLED*, is an Active; but *to have BEEN CALLED*, is a Passive Verb; and so of other Instances.

Of the Adverb.

No. 30. All Words which cannot conveniently be reduced under any of the other Parts of Speech, are usually ranked amongst Adverbs; and hence there are at least five Sorts of Words in this Class, which have very different Powers from the rest. The Import of far the greatest Number of Adverbs is much the same as that of the oblique Case of a Substantive, or of such a Case, with other Words depending on it: Thus, *to proceed CAUTIOUSLY*, and *to proceed WITH CAUTION*; *to do a Thing PERFECTLY*, *to do a Thing TO PERFECTION*, are equivalent Expressions; and *to go SOON*, is of the same Import with *to go IN A SHORT TIME*; and so of very many Instances. These Adverbs therefore are not of absolute Necessity in Language, but are nevertheless very convenient; for as they are peculiarly applied to modify Adjectives and Verbs, and not to modify Substantives, they give both a Variety and Precision to Serieses of Words; for were not Adverbs used, the oblique Cases of Substantives would recur too frequently, and

the Phrases would be too diffuse in which they did recur : Thus, *in an oblique Direction* is a more diffuse Expression than *awry* ; and so of other Instances, in which the Meaning of an Adverb is expressed by other Words.

The Adverbs, which are of a different Nature from the foregoing, are, THE NEGATIVE, THE REDDITIVE, THE RELATIVE, THE DEMONSTRATIVE, and THE CONJUNCTIVE.

Not is the NEGATIVE ADVERB, and gives Notice that the Object or State that is expressed by the Word which depends upon it, is to be considered as *exterminated* : Thus, *to be*, becomes *NOT to be* ; *good*, *NOT good* ; and in *they do NOT speak*, the State *do speak* is to be considered as exterminated ; and in *I, and NOT THEY, did this*, *THEY* are to be exterminated from the Expression *I and they did this* ; and so of other Instances.

Ay, yes, no, are REDDITIVE ADVERBS ; they are applied to give Answers to Questions asked by way of Supposition. *Ay, or yes*, shews the Affirmative to be true ; *no*, the Negative : Thus, *are they come*, is equivalent to *tell me which of the Suppositions, THEY ARE COME, THEY ARE NOT COME, is true* : The Answer by *ay* or *yes* shews that the first is true ; by *no*, that the latter is so.

The RELATIVE ADVERBS are *when, how, why, wherefore, where, whither, whence, whether, while, till, untill* : I observed, when I treated of THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, that each of these Adverbs includes the Power of a Relative : All of them, but *while, till, and untill*, may be used in asking Questions ; and the Reason is manifest, from what has been said of the Effect of the Interrogative Pronoun.

Whereat,

*Whereat, whereby, wherein, wherewith, and some others, are usually called Adverbs, although they are equivalent to *which* or *what* in Dependence on the Prepositions *at*, *by*, *in*, *with*, &c. as, *wherein have I offended*, and *in what have I offended*, are of the same Meaning ; and so of other Instances.*

The DEMONSTRATIVE ADVERBS are such as require some Demonstrative Circumstance to ascertain their Meaning as the Demonstrative Pronouns do ; and many of them directly include the Force of a Demonstrative Pronoun ; they chiefly relate to Time and Place, but some of them are applied, by Analogy, to Quantity, Number, &c.

Ere now, now, hereafter, and several others, are Demonstrative Adverbs of Time. Now, in itself, denotes any Instant of Time in which the Word is actually spoken ; ere now, refers to Time preceding ; and hereafter, to Time succeeding any such Instant. Hence the particular Present Time by which the Past and Future are estimated, when denoted by these Adverbs in any particular Discourse, must be determined by actually speaking the Discourse, or by putting a Date to it.

Hence is applied both to Time and Place, and signifies from this Time, or from this Place ; the particular Time that is meant to be determined by speaking the Word, and the particular Place, by that in which the Speaker is when he speaks the Word.

Yonder, here, there, are Demonstrative Adverbs of Place ; yonder, signifying in some distant Place, the Place to be determined by Pointing, or some Demonstrative Action or Circumstance : Here, in this Place ; there, in that

that Place ; the particular Place meant to be determined as before. The rest of the Adverbs of this Class may easily be explained on the same Principles.

THE CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS are such as amount to additional Declarations or Assertions, concerning that with which they are connected : Thus, *moreover* shews that what is introduced by it is more than is absolutely necessary to compleat the Sentence with which it is united. *Farther, likewise, too, besides,* and some few others, are much of the same Import as *moreover*.

Even shews that what depends upon it is exactly as it is represented, notwithstanding any Appearances to the contrary ; as, *even the wisest of Men may err.*

Forsooth implies that what is said occasions Contempt in the Speaker, on Account of some presumptuous or absurd Proceeding, which is related in the Words with which this Adverb is connected ; as, *he, forsooth, must direct.* The Word *forsooth* might perhaps be more properly considered as an Interjection.

The Circumstances which the Conjunctive Adverbs denote, always exist either at the Time of speaking, or at the Time to which the Sentences themselves relate, in which these Adverbs are used : And therefore, although these Adverbs have the Force of declarative Sentences, they have no Need of different Forms relating to past, present, and future Time, as the Definitive Verbs have, which are used in Sentences.

Of the Conjunction.

No. 31. The general Nature of a *Conjunction* is explained, in a good Measure, in what is said of the last-
I i mentioned

mentioned Sort of Adverbs : For the Conjunctions are all *additional Declarations* or *Affertions*, either of certain Connections amongst Words in the same Sentence, or between different Sentences ; which Declarations cannot be conveniently made by Sentences formed on purpose, as often as the Occasions of Language require them.

Some of the Conjunctions are applied in a Kind of Construction, which is considered as *joining Words together* : All of them are applied in *joining Sentences together*.

When a Conjunction is considered as joining Words, there is, in the Series, some common Word or Expression, which is either to be referred to several Words, or several Words to it.

When the *Result of all the References* is necessary for the Speaker's Purpose, and is used : Thus, *In the Beginning God created the Heaven and the Earth*, is equivalent to *in the Beginning God created the Heaven, in the Beginning God created the Earth*.

When the *Result of any one, or of some one of the References but without determining which, will answer the Purpose, either and or are used* ; as in, *either you, or I, or he, may do this* ; any one of the Persons is represented as *capable of doing this* ; but in *either you, or I, or he, must do this*, only one of the Persons is represented as under *a Necessity of doing this* ; but it is not determined which Person is so. As the particular Person out of several is not determined, although only one is actually concerned, *all of them are to be kept in Mind as much as in the References by and*.

When

When the Result of none of the References, if taken affirmatively one after another, will answer the Purpose, *neither and nor* are used ; as, *neither you, nor I, nor he, knows this* ; i. e. if *you*, and *I*, and *he*, are taken and considered one after another, none of us will be found to know this.

When the Result of some Reference looks like an Exception to what might be expected from Circumstances attending what is said, *but* is used ; as in, *I do not know but we may do it*, a Likelihood is insinuated that *we may not do it*, although there is no Impossibility in doing it, or Determination not to do it.

The Conjunctions described above, as joining Words, are likewise used to connect full Sentences ; and, with several others, which are seldom used but to connect full Sentences, are reduced to eleven Sorts. These are set down in Order in the Practical Grammar. The Nature of an Abridgment, such as this Treatise is, does not allow me to explain the Force of each particular Conjunction at large ; therefore I shall only observe here, that each Sort of Conjunction is a Mark of *a particular Sort of discursive Operation*, the Result of which appears when Words or Sentences are actually united by it. Some of these Operations have particular Names : Thus, the Act of Exception is exerted when *but* is mentioned ; that of Supposition, when *if*, or *unless* ; that of Illation, when *therefore* or *wherefore* is mentioned ; and the Result of the Exception, Supposition, or Illation, is shewn in the Words which depend on these Conjunctions. If there were particular Names for the several Sorts of discursive Operations which are exerted when the other Conjunctions are applied, the Import of each

might be ascertained more easily than it can now be done for want of such Names.

Of the Preposition.

No. 32. Prepositions are the Marks of several Sorts of discursive Operation founded on the different Respects in which the Mind itself considers Objects, and this in order to derive from them the Conceptions of Circumstances merely coalescent ; i. e. such as will unite with an Object or verbal State, without increasing its Number.

The Art of Grammar is under an almost insuperable Difficulty, occasioned by the want of Names for the Sorts of discursive Operation denoted by the Prepositions ; or, at least, by the want of a Name for the Operation which is denoted by each Preposition that is equivalent to the Sign of a Case ; for, if such Names could be found, the most simple of all the discursive Operations of the Mind would be reduced to Sorts distinguished by those Names : Whereas, at present, we have no Means of distinguishing the Operations, but by their different Effects in Serieses of Words connected by Prepositions.

It is the capital Property of a Preposition, that when by Means thereof a Substantive is made dependent on another Substantive, or on a Verb, the compound Expression denotes an Object or State no ways increased in Number : Thus, in the King of France ; two Objects, the King and France, are concerned, and these Objects are essentially separate from each other, yet the Expression denotes but one Object ; and in to go from France, the State to go, and the Object France, are both concerned, and yet the Expression denotes but one State. Almost every Writer on Grammar has thought it a sufficient Explanation of Prepositions

tions to say, that they denote *the several Relations* which are amongst Objects and States ; but this is a very defective Explanation : For, if Objects are essentially separate, no Relation amongst the Objects themselves can unite them into one Object : But *the Conception* of an Object, as it may be modified by the Mind of Man, may be united with *the Conception* of another Object, so as to form out of both *one complex Conception*. In order to account for this Effect, both the *abstractive* and the *connective* or *discursive Operations* of the Mind itself must be particularly considered : For, by the abstractive Operations, separate Conceptions are first formed in the Intellect, both of Objects and States, which never *present themselves* separately either to the Senses or to the Mind : And this is *the artificial Proceeding* which is to be used before we can at first apprehend the Meaning of a single Substantive or Verb in the Infinitive Mood : For it is evident that when we acquire the Conception that is annexed even to a proper Name, we *check* or *confine* the Attention, and do not let it dwell on all that is *presented at once to the Senses*, or to the Mind ; for a Child never sees its Nurse actually separate from all other Things ; and much less does it perceive the States *to be*, *to stand*, *to sit*, &c. detached and separate from Persons and Things : Therefore the *converse Operations* that unite into *one complex Conception* those Conceptions which are formed by Abstraction, and laid up in the Intellect as denoted by single Substantives and single Verbs, are the most simple and natural of all the discursive Operations of the Mind of Man : For these are the very first Attempts of a Child to represent, in Words, any common Occurrence or Appearance, as it presents itself *all at once* to the Mind. Hence all the discursive Operations exerted in this Proceeding, become so very familiar

familiar to us from our Infancy, that we never attend to the Particulars in which one of them differs from another ; and, of consequence, have no Name for any one Sort of them as distinguished from the rest. Indeed, if the Particle *than* be considered as a Preposition, we have a Name for the Operation that is exerted when it is used ; viz. *the Act of Comparison* ; but *than* is a Reduplicative Conjunction, rather than a Preposition.

The clearest Conception of the Nature of a Preposition may be got from considering the Correspondence between the Active and Passive State of one and the same Transitive Verb. If the Active Verb is mentioned, and a Substantive immediately subjoined to it, the Object denoted by the Substantive is instantly conceived to be in the corresponding Passive State, although that State is not directly mentioned. And thus the Object is made to denote *a Circumstance merely coalescent of the State on which it depends* ; as in *to possess a House* ; where the House is *the Object possessed*. Now, instead of the Verb *to possess*, let the objective Participle, *the possessing*, or the Substantive, *the Possession*, be used, and the Expressions, *the possessing*, or *the Possession of a House*, will be nearly of the same Import with *to possess a House*. Hence it is clear, that *of* directs us to consider the House as *the Object possessed*, in order to reduce it to *a Circumstance of mere Coalescence with the Object Possession*, or with the objective State *the possessing* ; so that this Particle, in Effect, supplies the Transitive Power of the Verb.

Hence it comes to pass that, in many Instances, the Effect of almost any Preposition may be supplied by a Relative Clause, with a Transitive Verb in it : Thus,

the

the *Parts of a Whole*, the *Parts which constitute a Whole*; a *Man WITH another*, a *Man who accompanies another*; a *House IN a Wood*, a *House which a Wood surrounds*, are equivalent Expressions; and so of many other Instances.

The Subject of the Prepositions is by much the most difficult Part of rational Grammar, and that for the Reasons given above. A List of all the English Prepositions is given in the Practical Grammar.

Of the Interjection.

No. 33. The Interjections are short Expressions, so formed as to declare at once either some sudden or violent Emotion in the Speaker, or his Intention when he is in some Situation which makes him incapable of holding continued Conversation with the Hearer.

Some Interjections are the Sounds that are produced by the Emotions themselves which they denote, as *ha ha ha!* of Laughter; *oh oh!* of continued Pain.

Others, as *hola! soho!* are Notices to some one at a Distance to attend till the Speaker can come to him.

Others, as *mum! bish! bush!* are Notices to continue in Silence.

Others, as *Peace! Silence!* are Injunctions to desist from speaking.

Others, as *O that!* are Indications of wishing.

A List of the Interjections is given in the Practical Grammar.

It is manifest that every Interjection is an *Affection* either *Declarative*, *Imperative*, or *Optative*; and therefore is equivalent to a whole Sentence containing a Definitive Verb in it. But the Circumstances which attend the Speaker when he utters an Interjection, make it unnecessary, and sometimes impossible, for him to speak a full Sentence; as when *holá!* or *sóho!* is used to some one at a Distance; or when a general Silence is enjoined by *hus!* Hence it is clear that the Interjection has the Property of *Affection* or *Affirmation* as well as the Definitive Verb; and this, with what has been observed on the Conjunctions, sufficiently shews that the Essence, or distinguishing Property of the Verb does not consist in *Affirmation* or *Affection*, because those Parts of Speech have this Property as well as the Verb; and indeed the Vocative Case of a Substantive has the same Property: For if you Name a Man or other Object by a Substantive in that Case, you affirm or assert that *the Man or other Object denoted by the Substantive, is the Object to which you direct your Discourse.*

S E C T I O N II.

Of Words in connected Construction.

No. 34. **I**T would by no Means answer the general Purposes of Language to give many single Words a Power like that above described of the Interjections; that is to say, to make *each of them, by itself,* declarative of the Intention of the Speaker; for the Hearer is supposed to understand the Meaning of every single Word before it is spoken; and, of consequence, the mentioning of any single Word cannot, *of itself,* give him any new Information: Therefore the Demonstrative

strative Circumstances which attend the Use of Interjections, give all the new Information which one of them conveys to the Hearer: Thus, if a Speaker cries out *Silence!* he is understood to mean, *I require Silence to be kept from this Instant in which I speak*: But the Interjection, *in itself*, equally denotes the Injunction of any Speaker, and equally relates to *any Time in which it is spoken*; so that *the very Person who gives the Injunction* must be determined by actually seeing him, and *the very Instant*, by actually hearing him pronounce the Word: And this gives the Hearer new Information, *viz.* that *such a certain Person, at such a certain Time, is desirous of Silence being kept*: It is therefore manifest, that the Word *Silence!* can only be used as an Interjection *in certain Circumstances*, which sometimes occur in the Use of Language, but not constantly, nor even frequently.

What is said of the Interjection may be applied to *any single Word*, even though it be a *Definitive Verb*; such as *go, come*; for one of these, *by itself*, gives no new Information to the Hearer; because *go*, of itself, represents *any Speaker*, as enjoining *any Person spoken to TO GO at any Time in which the Word is spoken*: But if the Speaker, and Person spoken to, are present with each other when the Discourse is held, *the Demonstrative Circumstances attending the Discourse*, enable the Hearer to comprehend that he is the Person enjoined, at such a particular Time, and by such a particular Speaker; all which Points he was ignorant of till the Word *go* was mentioned. If therefore the Person addressed is not actually present when the Address is made, (as in a Letter, or other Writing) he must be told *who made the Address*, and *when*, and *to whom*, or he receives no new Information from such a single Verb; i. e. the Writer of the

Letter must sign his Name, and put a Date, and a Direction to it.

The Latin and Greek Definitive Verbs, such as *amo*, *amas*, *amat*, $\tau\upsilon\omega\lambda$, $\tau\upsilon\omega\lambda\epsilon\varsigma$, $\tau\upsilon\omega\lambda\iota\varsigma$, are exactly of the Nature above-mentioned; and so are the English Forms *I love*, *thou lovest*, *he loves*: For if we suppose any one of them to be written by itself on a Paper, and some Person to find it, who knew neither the Hand-Writing, nor the Time of Writing, nor to whom it was addressed, such Person would learn nothing in particular that he did not know before: The Reason of this is, that the Man or Woman, denoted by *I*, *thou*; or *he*, should be the Object of his especial Attention; and he does not know on whom to fix his Attention, because he does not know who wrote the Words: Therefore such Expressions as the foregoing, are by no Means proper for the general Purposes of Information. To accomplish these, some Conception must first be raised in the Hearer's Mind, denoting something which he can make the Object of his especial Attention: Then, in order to give him new Information, this Object must be represented in some State, such as the present Occasion of Speaking requires. The Object of especial Attention may be denoted by a single Substantive, or a single objective Verb; because either of these expresses a Conception that is separately ascertained in the Intellect, and annexed to the Substantive or Verb; so that it instantly recurs to the Hearer's Mind, and that by mere Recollection, as soon as the Noun or Verb is mentioned. When this Conception is raised, it may either represent the Object of especial Attention, as sufficiently circumstantiated for the Speaker's present Occasion, or not; if it does, Notice must be given by the Speaker himself, that it does so; for otherwise

otherwise the Hearer could not possibly know it. This is done by the grammatic *Form* of a *Definitive Verb*, independent of the rest of the Signification thereof; and therefore such a Verb must be made dependent on the Name of every *Object* of especial Attention, when that Name, of itself, expresses the Object sufficiently for the Speaker's present Purpose. But farther, the State in which this Object is to be represented, must be *occasional*; for it must be adapted to every new Occasion, or no new Information can be given: That is to say, it must be such a State as the Speaker may represent as *actually perceived*, or as *merely remembered*, or as *only foreseen* or *proposed*; or as *not in the above-mentioned Situations*; or as *capable* or *incapable*, *likely* or *unlikely* to come to pass. This is the *occasional Character* of the State denoted by a Verb; and this Character is annexed to no Sort of Conception but that denoted by a Verb: Therefore the State in which the Object of especial Attention is to be represented, must be expressed by a *Verb*, and this Verb of a *Definitive Form*, or no new Information will be given by what is said. When this Verb is applied to the Name of the Object of especial Attention, the Form of a *compleat Sentence* is given to the Expression; as, in *the Man calls, does not call, has called, has not called; will, may, can call; will not, may not, cannot call, &c.* *The Man* is the Object of especial Attention in all these Sentences; and *calls, does not call, &c.* are several definitive occasional States of the Verb *to call*, in which the Man is represented.

THE MAN, in Terms of Grammar, is called the SUBJECT; and any of the Definitive Verbs *calls, does not call, &c.* the PREDICATE of the Sentence in which each of them is concerned.

Both the Subject and Predicate of each of these Sentences is *simple*; i. e. consisting of one Name, and of one verbal Form: But the Subject of any Sentence may be made as complex as the Speaker pleases, by adding Expressions of more and more *Coalescent Circumstances* to the Name that denotes the Object of especial Attention; as, THE MAN of such a House, THE MAN of such a House in such a Place, &c. &c. This Liberty of adding Coalescent Circumstances continues till the Definitive Verb is applied, and then ceases: For the Speaker then gives Notice, by using the definitive grammatical Form, that the Expression of the Subject of his Sentence is sufficiently compounded for his present Occasion: The Predicate of any Sentence may likewise be made as complex as the Speaker pleases, by adding Expressions of more and more *Coalescent Circumstances* in Dependence on the Verb which gives the Form of a Sentence to the whole Series of Words.

The Conception denoted by a Series of Words, when made the Subject of a Sentence, is of the same Nature as the Conception which is denoted by one Noun Substantive in the Nominative Case; for all of it, taken together, represents an Object compleated in the Intellect of the Speaker. The Conception denoted by a Series of Words, when made the Predicate of a Sentence, is of the same Nature as that denoted by one Definitive Verb; for all of it, taken together, expresses a State, the Whole of which affects the whole Subject, just as it would do if all the Subject were contained in one Substantive, and all the Predicate in one Definitive Verb. Hence the whole Application of Language, however diversified in Appearance, is reduced to this simple Proceeding, viz. of finding single Names suited to our present Purpose; or of making

making Serieses of Words to be considered as single Names ; and of finding single Verbs suited to our present Purpose, or of making Serieses of Words to be considered as single Verbs, representing Objects on which they depend in such States of Being as the Speaker HAS OCCASION to represent these Objects in.

It is manifest from hence, that the connective Part of the Signification of an Adjective, Coalescent Participle, Relative Clause, and Preposition, is no more than a Kind of Notice to the Mind, to dissolve its own *abstractive Operations*, by others which are the *Converses* thereof, so as again to unite into one Conception the several Parts into which it had at the first resolved complex Objects, and complex verbal States, merely for its own Convenience : And hence it likewise follows, that all the connective Parts of Speech are no more than Auxiliars to the Substantive in the Nominative Case, and to the Definitive Verb. I have in this Place considered the Vocative Case as a Kind of Nominative, and the objective Verb as a Kind of Substantive Name of Species ; for the Vocative Case, or the objective Verb, either alone, or with a Series of Words depending upon it, may denote the *Subject of a Sentence* as well as any other Name ; and the Reason why it may do so is given in what has been said in particular of the Nature of the Case and of the objective Verb. Thus it appears from the Result or Effect of Sentences, that the Account given above of each of the Parts of Speech is certainly right ; for this Result or Effect is exactly such as suits with the Account.

Of the Concords.

No. 35. Although Words must be reduced to the *Form of a compleat Sentence*, on almost all Occasions, for the great Purpose of giving new *Information to the Hearer*,

er, yet the Words of which the same Sentence consists, may be placed in several *different Orders*, and every Order may not be equally convenient, either for Ease of Pronunciation, or Clearness of Conception.

No Method can be taken which will generally be more effectual for Clearness of Conception, than to place the capital Word of the Subject, either the first, or as near the first as possible ; and every Word which immediately modifies another, either close before or behind the Word which it modifies ; and to proceed in this Manner till the Subject of the Sentence is compleated, and then to give immediate Notice that it is so, by mentioning the Definitive Verb ; and if the Verb is to be modified by dependent Words, to place each of these as near as possible to the Word which it modifies, and to proceed in this Manner till the Predicate of the Sentence is compleated.

Most of the present Languages of Europe proceed on this Plan of Construction ; but the antient Greeks and Romans were not satisfied with such Simplicity : For in their Languages the Words of the Subject and Predicate of a Sentence are almost constantly intermixed, and the Definitive Verb frequently stands the last in the Sentence : But in order that Words, thus placed, should be intelligible, it was necessary to introduce into these Languages certain *grammatic Marks*, to shew which Words are to be considered as immediately modifying each other, although they do not stand close together. It is for this Purpose, and this only, that in these Languages the Terminations of the Adjectives, and Pronouns Possessive, Relative, and Demonstrative, and of the Participles are made to vary, so as to answer the grammatical

tic Terminations of Gender, Number, and Case of the Substantives on which they depend : And the Distinctions of Termination in the Persons and Numbers of the Definitive Verb are introduced, even into the English, on the same Account. This Correspondence of Termination is called *Concord* in Grammar, and, by the Help of this, the Words of almost any Sentence may be mixed in various Orders in the Greek and Latin, and yet may continue intelligible, because the correspondent Terminations of the Words shew which are to be taken in immediate Connection, although they do not stand close by each other. This creates *an Accordance of correspondent Sounds* in these Languages, which cannot be in a Language of so simple a Construction as that of the English is ; but it creates a continual Return of something like Rhime, which is disagreeable, unless the Words of correspondent Termination are removed at a Distance from each other ; and this Removal sometimes makes the Sentence intricate. The Greek and Latin are often considered as more elegant than the Modern Languages : But so far as Simplicity contributes to Elegance, the latter have the Advantage ; and the English perhaps more than any other : For the Plan of its Construction is exceeding simple, and yet capable of much Precision.

No. 36. The Concords are considered as three in most Languages. THE FIRST CONCORD requires that the Termination of the Definitive Verb shall agree with the Number and Person of the capital Object in the Subject of the Sentence which is defined by the Verb.

As the Termination of the first Person Singular of all English Verbs (except some of the Tenses of the Verb

to

to be) is the same with the Termination of all the Persons Plural of the same Tense, the Observation of this Concord in our Language is very easy : Thus, *I love, we love, you love, they love,* have all the same Termination ; and only *thou lovest, he loveth, or loves,* have Terminations different from the rest.

No. 37. THE SECOND CONCORD in Greek and Latin requires that the Adjective shall be varied, so as to suit the grammatic Gender, Number, and Case of the Substantive on which it depends : And in French, and other Modern Languages, it requires that the Adjective shall be varied, so as to suit the grammatic Gender and Number of its Substantive. This introduces a Necessity in these Languages of considering every Substantive as of some grammatic Gender, although it be the Name of an Object of no Sex : And as these Objects have nothing in them which answers to the Distinctions of Sex, mere arbitrary Custom has determined, that some of their Names shall take an Adjective of a Masculine Termination ; others, an Adjective of a Feminine ; and others, in Latin and Greek, an Adjective of a Neuter Termination. As this is altogether arbitrary, nothing but Custom can be relied on to determine it ; and therefore many Rules are necessary to shew what the Custom of each particular Language has determined in this Point. This creates much Trouble; all which is avoided in English, by allowing no grammatic Distinctions of Number, Gender, or Case, to its Adjectives, and by placing them as near as possible before or behind their Substantives. Most of the Modern Languages retain (as I believe) the grammatic Distinctions of Number and Gender in their Adjectives, and yet place them as near their Substantives as they are placed

placed in English. This is a considerable Imperfection, because it creates much Trouble, and is attended with little or no Advantage.

No. 38. THE THIRD CONCORD in Greek and Latin, requires that the Relative Pronoun shall agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person.

This Rule extends, in English, to all the Pronouns ; for it includes even the Pronouns Possessive, which, in Greek and Latin, follow the Rule of the Adjective. The Relatives in English have no Distinction of Number ; for they can seldom be used without Antecedents actually mentioned, or without some Definitive Verb immediately depending upon them ; as, in *the Person of whom I speak* ; *the Persons of whom I speak* ; *who is here ? who are here ?* And either the Number of the Antecedent, or that of the Definitive dependent Verb determines the Number of the Object which the Relative represents : But it must be remembered that *who*, represents Persons ; *which*, Things ; and *that*, either Persons or Things.

As to the Possessive Pronouns, the Sex, Number, and Person of an Object contained in the Signification of one of them, are as easily known as they are when the same Object is denoted by a Personal Pronoun : So that the English Concord of Pronouns, with their Antecedents, requires very few Directions.

The Determination of the *Case of a Relative Pronoun* is not a Proceeding of the same Nature with that of adjusting the Concords ; for the Relative is always in the same Case in which its Antecedent would be, if it were substituted in the Clause instead of the Relative ; but

Antecedent would often stand in a different Place : For the Relative must be the first Word, or as near as possible to the first Word of its Clause ; and this, in order to give instant Notice that the Clause is an Expression of imperfect Sense, although it bears the Form of a compleat Sentence. Now one and the same Sentence may be turned into as many different Relative Clauses as there are Substantives in it, if we first make one of these Substantives, and then another, the Antecedent, and substitute a Relative for the Substantive which is made the Antecedent : Thus, *I am writing a System of Grammar*, may be turned into three Relative Clauses ; the first depending on *I*, the second on *a System*, and the third on *Grammar* ; as, *I who am writing a System of Grammar*; *a System of Grammar which I am writing*; *Grammar, of which I am writing a System*. *I* is of the Nominative Case in the original Sentence, and so is *who* in *I who am writing*, &c. *A System* is of the Accusative in the original Sentence, and so is *which*, in *a System of Grammar which I am writing*, &c. although *which* stands before both the Nominative *I*, and the Verb *am writing*. *Of Grammar* is of the Genitive in the original Sentence, and so is *of which*, in *Grammar of which I am writing*, &c. although it stands the first in the Relative Clause, and *of Grammar* stands the last in the original Sentence. Thus it appears that the Relative retains the Case, but departs out of the Place of its Antecedent in the original Sentence that is turned into first one Relative Clause and then another, except when it is the Nominative Case to the Verb ; as, in *I who am writing*, &c.

The adjusting of the Case of the Relative is, in all Languages, difficult to Children ; but may be made much

much easier to their Apprehension, by reducing the same Sentence to several Relative Clauses, according to the Example given above.

No. 39. The general Plan of Construction of the English Language is so very simple, that there is no Necessity of saying more on the Construction of Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, &c. than has been already said in the Account of the several Parts of Speech, and of the Concords ; especially as practical Rules for their Construction are given in the foregoing Treatise : Only *the Verb in the Infinitive Mood*, requires some Observations in this Place, to shew the Reason of its Application in several Manners of dependent Construction.

This Form of the Verb supplies the Place of a Substantive in any Case, and yet does not take the usual Signs before it : Thus, in *a Boy desirous TO LEARN* ; *to learn*, in effect, is of the Genitive Case ; for it is *that of which* the Boy is desirous : But, in *a Boy inclinable TO LEARN*, *to learn* is of the Dative ; for it is *that to which* the Boy is inclinable : In *a Boy intending TO LEARN*, *to learn* is of the Accusative ; for it is *that which is intended by the Boy* : And, in *a Boy striving TO LEARN*, *to learn* is of the Ablative ; for it is *that for which* the Boy strives ; and so of other Instances.

What is said of a single Infinitive Verb, is also true of this Verb with a Series of Words depending on it : Thus, in *a Person desirous TO LEARN GRAMMAR*, *inclinable TO LEARN GRAMMAR*, *intending TO LEARN GRAMMAR*, *striving TO LEARN GRAMMAR*, the Expression *to learn Grammar*, is, in effect, of the Genitive, Dative,

Accusative, and Ablative Case. The Infinitive Verb is in its *objective Character* in the Expressions above : But it sometimes coalesces with a Substantive on which it depends ; and with the Substantive forms an Expression similar to *one Substantive* in a depending Case : Thus, in *I know THIS TO BE* ; *this to be* is equivalent to *an Accusative Case*, for it expresses *the Thing known*. *THIS TO BE* is, in effect, a full Sentence, only not reduced to Form, because it is made dependent on *I know* ; for the whole Expression is equivalent to *I know THAT THIS IS*. In the first Expression, the grammatical Form of Construction by the Infinitive Verb is only a Notice concerning the Words themselves, *viz.* that *this to be*, although equivalent to a Sentence, is now to be considered as *one Substantive*, depending on *I know*. In the latter Expression, *that* gives the very same Notice concerning the Sentence *this is* ; and hence it comes to pass, that the two Expressions, *I know this to be*, *I know that this is*, are exactly equivalent to each other ; and so of any other Instances of like Construction.

In Greek and Latin, the Construction, by the Accusative Case and dependent Infinitive Verb, occurs very frequently : And, in Greek, a Clause of this Kind is turned into any Case, by prefixing an Article in that Case ; as, *μετα το εγιρθηναι με*, after my rising ; or after I am risen ; *εν τω ελθειν αυτον εις οικον*, upon his coming into the House ; where, *το εγερθηναι με*, is a Kind of Accusative, and *τω ελθειν αυτον εις οικον* is a Kind of Dative or Ablative Case. The Frequency of this Kind of Construction in Greek, arises from the Want of objective Participles in the Language : For, as Participles may be considered as a Kind of Substantives in English, we make the Possessive Pronouns, *my*, *his*,

bis, &c. and sometimes other Adjectives, and even the oblique Cases of Substantives, depend upon them ; as in *my rising, his coming, swift running, John's going, &c.* which cannot be done in Greek ; because the Participles of that Language have not the *Substantive or objective Character*. The Gerunds and Supines are introduced into the Latin to supply the Want of objective Participles ; as, *amandi* of loving, *amando* by loving, &c.

It is manifest that such Expressions as *I hear of HIS GOING, we discovered THEIR PLOTTING TO DECEIVE US,* are equivalent to *I hear THAT HE GOES, we discovered THAT THEY WERE PLOTTING TO DECEIVE US*; i. e. to the full Sentences *he goes, they were plotting to deceive us*, depending on *I hear, we discovered*; therefore it is clear that the only Difference between these equivalent Forms of Expression is in the different Modes of Estimation, which the Mind itself applies in uniting the Conceptions denoted by several Words into other Conceptions more complex.

This confirms what has been delivered throughout this Treatise, concerning the Principles on which the Application of Language proceeds ; and likewise proves that the whole Analysis has been carried on without any material Error : For if either the Principals or the Process were wrong, Conclusions must have followed that would not have agreed, as these do, with all that Variety of Effects, which actually ensue in the Application of Language.

It may not be amiss, before I conclude this Part of the Work, to observe, that the Greek and Latin are no ways comparable to the English, with regard to the Simplicity of their respective Plans of Construction : That the Difficulty of Plan in the former Languages, has

has probably occasioned their Disuse (at least it appears that the Modern Greek retains the Words of the Ancient with little Alteration, but has adopted the easier Plan of Construction of the Northern Languages): That all Complaints of Imperfection arising from the Auxiliar Verbs, or the prefixed Signs of Cases in English, are destitute of real Foundation: That the Variety of the Terminations of English Words, when placed together in Sentences, is greater than it can be in Latin and Greek, in which the Nouns are declined, and the Verbs conjugated, by certain Classes of final Syllables; or even in French, in which the Verbs are conjugated by the same Means: That the correspondent Terminations of the Substantives and Adjectives of these Languages must recur continually, together with the established Terminations of the Definitive Verbs: That the Latin and Greek are manifestly overcharged with these Correspondencies, which are frequently in a Kind of Rhime to each other: And that to avoid the too frequent Return of this Rhime, the Words in these Languages are very often so disposed in Sentences, as makes them intricate at the first reading, especially to People who are accustomed to a more simple Plan of Construction, such as that of the English is.

These, and many more Particulars, concerning the Greek and Latin, and several of the Modern Languages, may easily be proved by Deductions from the Principles laid down in this Treatise: And this without having Recourse to mere arbitrary Custom, or to what is sometimes called *the Genius of a Language*. If the general Plan of Construction of a particular Language be what is meant by *its Genius*, this is not the Result of Chance, but of the Reason of Man, adjusting certain Means

Means to certain Purposes, and that by discursive Operations, so exceeding simple and obvious, that their very Simplicity makes it difficult to account for them explicitly. Nevertheless, whatsoever the Reason of Man has applied in Composition, the like Reason may trace back to its most simple Principles ; and when these are once discovered, they will extend to every remarkable Effect. If such Principles are discovered, Art is no longer the Result of Practice in repeated Trials ; but general Elements are made known, and shewn by Proof to be such as may be safely made the Foundations of Science. I need not observe to the Reader, that the only Principles used in this Treatise are contained in the Definitions of the Noun and Verb with which the Work begins.

F I N I S.





